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ABSTRACT

This book, using a teacher's perspective, explores the issues behind children's classroom behavior. Adults are seen as the central cause of children's discipline problems, and the need for adults, including the teacher, to take responsibility for themselves and their children's behavior is a key theme here. Outlined are some of the beliefs and behaviors that a teacher must possess for success with discipline, especially with students considered at risk. Insights into how young people think and what motivates them to behave are offered. Old concepts of discipline and its purposes are reexamined and characteristics of a disciplined person are outlined. Effective discipline methods are given along with appropriate citations so that teachers can examine the evidence themselves. The book's topics are organized into nine chapters: (1) Introduction; (2) What's Wrong with These Kids Today?; (3) Teacher Attitudes and Characteristics; (4) Principles of Motivation; (5) Definition of Discipline; (6) Proactive Management Strategies; (7) Reactive Management Strategies; (8) Schoolwide Factors in Effective Student Management; and (9) A Final Word. Contains a 93-item list of references and a 22-item list of resources. (RJM)

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straight talk about

DISCIPLINE

by
John V. Hamby

National Dropout Prevention Center

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To my wife, Peggy,
and my daughters, Ann, Dana, and Lorie.

Thanks for your love and support.

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Chapter One

INTRODUCTION

I want to talk to you about discipline with students at risk. Straight talk about a task you wish you didn't have, but one you will face as long as you teach young people. I know I don't have to convince you of how difficult discipline is for teachers at all grade levels. It's sad that so many leave teaching every year because they can't maintain order in their classrooms or because they just don't want to put up with the hassle anymore.

It would be a real shame if you let discipline problems drive you from teaching or make you unhappy and dissatisfied with the career you've chosen. ***School today is an exciting place!*** You are constantly learning about new teaching methods, reading about new research on how students learn, and using new technology like computers and interactive video to teach students everything from math to business English. The opportunities to make a difference in the lives of students have never been greater.

School is also a challenging place. You face a classroom filled with students with a diversity of cultural backgrounds, learning styles, interests, and problems. Administrators want higher test scores, business leaders want better-trained workers, and elected officials want you to solve all of the community's social problems. Everyone wants you to see that students meet higher standards, master more difficult skills, and ingest greater amounts of difficult content. You are expected to respect student rights, involve parents in their child's education, and improve your professional skills by taking graduate classes on a regular basis.

But you and I also know that ***school is a scary place.*** Each year thousands of students and teachers are assaulted in school. More and more students are bringing weapons to school—and in many cases, using

them. Many schools have installed metal detectors and hired security guards in an attempt to ensure a safe school environment. We read daily of the increase in violence and vandalism in school.

Since I'm talking about discipline with students at risk, I need to clarify a point. All students at risk are not violent. They don't bring guns to school, assault teachers and classmates, or disrupt lessons. All students at risk are not discipline problems. But all students with a history of discipline problems are at risk. As a teacher you will have to deal with these students as well. Actually, it will help you to think about discipline this way: All students need discipline; it's just that some need more help than others—more firm boundaries, more attention from teachers and administrators, more creativity in the methods to help them acquire self-discipline.

So, as a teacher you are faced with a diverse group of students, pressure for greater accountability in student achievement, threats of violence, disgruntled parents, and cynical business leaders. And within this environment, you are expected to maintain order, meet a greater array of student needs, and prepare the future generation for success in a rapidly changing world. No wonder you have a headache so often.

In preparation for this book, I read a lot of research on discipline and classroom management. I talked to a lot of teachers, principals, and counselors about what works and what doesn't. I thought about my own experiences as a classroom teacher, principal, and teacher educator.

I have tried my best to write it from the teacher's perspective. I imagined myself as a teacher in a rural elementary school in the southwest, in a suburban middle school in the northeast, and in an inner-city high school in the southeast. I asked myself: What do teachers in all these different parts of the country have in common when it comes to discipline? What knowledge, understandings, attitudes, and skills would I need to possess to be relatively successful at discipline in any of these situations? How would I deal with the great diversity of individual personalities, cultural backgrounds, abilities, achievement levels, handicaps, languages, needs, interests, wants, desires, problems, and dreams? How could I cope with the violence that seems to be increasing? And especially, how would I deal with students at risk of dropping out of

school or of graduating with such poor skills that they will have a tough time coping in a competitive job market?

I also asked: Why are we having so many problems with discipline in school—why the disruptions, violence, vandalism, teacher-student conflicts, and fighting? What is causing this general disregard for authority and the rights of others? I spent a lot of time pondering these questions. ***What's wrong with these kids today?*** I finally came up with an answer: ***Adults!*** Hear me out before you dismiss the idea. I don't like it either, but let's be absolutely honest. Student behavior is simply a reflection of adult behavior in today's society. We adults are very permissive with ourselves and our children. Many of us don't want to take responsibility for our own behavior, much less that of our children—and particularly not that of other people's children. Some adults demand their rights but don't want to accept any personal responsibility. They want a better life but lack the courage to make it better. Keep this in mind as you continue to read.

As I thought about all these questions, it occurred to me that if I wanted my students to act better, I would have to step forward and take responsibility to see that they did so. I realized that ***I had to focus on myself and what kind of person I would have to be if I wanted to be successful in the classroom***. Then I had a very strange thought: I decided that I would have more success at discipline if I spent more time ***concentrating on my own beliefs and behaviors and less time on those of students***. So, in this book I'm going to share with you some of the beliefs and behaviors that I and others have found to be indispensable for teaching these students we call at risk.

As I considered my own beliefs and behaviors, another thought occurred to me: Self-knowledge is vital and necessary for success with discipline, but it is not sufficient. I realized I would need to ***spend considerable time learning about the students I was teaching***. I'm not just talking about their names, where they live, who their parents are. That's important, of course. I am mainly talking about what motivates young people, how they learn, what their goals are, how they react to social pressures, and how they make decisions about what they want to become and how they want to achieve it. So I am going to share

with you some ideas about these important topics as background for understanding young people and how we must relate to them if we are going to reach our goals as educators and, at the same time, help them reach their goals as individuals.

As I continued to think about my behavior and beliefs and what students are all about, I also began to rethink teaching in general and discipline in particular and asked myself these questions:

What does discipline mean? Is it a product? If so, is it a state of the classroom (I have discipline in my class), or is it a condition of the person (the student has self-discipline)? Is it a process? If so, is it something the teacher does (I must discipline my students), or is it something the student does (the student exhibits self-discipline)? Is discipline really part of the teacher's role, or should it be left to the administration? Does the teacher need to establish discipline before learning can occur, or does discipline naturally flow from good instruction and successful learning? Is discipline strictly the responsibility of the school, or must it also include students, parents, and other community persons? What are rules? How do they relate to discipline? Should students be punished for breaking rules? Are punishment and discipline synonymous? If not, does punishment play any role at all in discipline? If the school finds it necessary to remove a student from school, does the school have any further responsibility for the student?

What is the purpose of discipline? Is it to produce order so learning can take place? Is it retribution for bad and inappropriate behavior? Is it to build character in students? Is it to socialize and enculturate students so they can learn to live in the real world? I will present some information for your consideration on this question, too.

What would a disciplined person look like anyway? I mean, how would that person act and what kinds of attitudes and values would that person exhibit? If we want to do a good job at discipline, I think it's important to have an ideal picture of what we are trying to achieve. So, I want to talk about some characteristics of the disciplined person.

What would I need to do to achieve discipline? In the course of my musing about discipline, I began to build a catalog in my mind of what I would need to do with students to "produce" discipline in school or to

help them "develop" discipline in themselves—in other words, the strategies and techniques, the things a teacher does with, to, and for students to get the job done.

Whew! It's all mind-boggling, isn't it? But these are questions that I found myself asking when I took the time to really think about discipline. And I'll bet you have thought about these same questions and many others as you've tried to shape your own philosophy and practices about student discipline. Well, I want to share with you some of the answers I came up with when I considered these questions.

So where are we so far? I promised that I would talk more about adult responsibility for kids' behavior and what this has to do with school discipline. I'll also talk about some of the beliefs and behaviors that a teacher must possess for success with discipline, especially with students considered at risk. I'll try to give you some insight into how young people think and what motivates them to behave. We'll take a new look at an old concept and explore just what we mean by discipline and its purposes, as well as consider what the characteristics of a disciplined person might be. Finally, I'll describe some effective discipline "methods" that have withstood the test of time.

I've organized these topics into nine chapters. I've cited references for a couple of reasons. First, I want you to know I'm not just making all this up and that at least one other person thinks about discipline the way I do. Second, I want you to have additional sources that you can turn to for help. These references are listed at the end of the book. In addition, I have listed a number of organizations where you can write for more information.

As you read the rest of this book, I hope you will treat it as a silent conversation between you and me. If you're to gain anything of value from it, you must be an active participant in the dialogue. As you read, ask me questions; then try to answer them yourself or talk to colleagues about them. If you think I am out in left field with an idea, try to suggest a better one for yourself by going directly to the research literature. Above all, don't dismiss an idea without trying it for a reasonable period of time to test its merits. Just remember, my objective is to help you teach better with less stress so your students can learn better with greater self-

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control and all of you can do so in an atmosphere of safety, security, and satisfaction. So let's get started!

Chapter Two

WHAT'S WRONG WITH THESE KIDS TODAY?

What's wrong with these kids today?
Why are our young people so undisciplined?
Why can't they be responsible?
What's causing them to act like they do?

In the spaces below, briefly jot down your answers to these questions:

As I have already said, I have a very strong opinion I want to share with you: I believe that the problem with young people today is grown-ups. As adults we're too undisciplined, we're transmitting the wrong values, we're providing the wrong role models, and we're neglecting responsibility for children's behavior.

The May 1993 issue of *ASCD Update* was devoted to a recent resurgence of the interest in character education in school. In the lead article Mary Massey stated, "Experts say this movement is growing in response to pressure on schools both to reduce student antisocial

behavior—including drug use and violence—and to produce more respectful and responsible citizens" (Massey, 1993, p. 1). She quotes the director of the Center for the Advancement of Ethics and Character who said, "Parents and policymakers are disturbed by a total inability of our culture to pass on its values."

Look at that last statement again: ". . . the total inability of our culture to pass on its values." That's an interesting observation, and, on the surface, we might think it's true. However, I believe it misses the mark. I believe our culture is doing a wonderfully effective job of passing on its values. Unfortunately, so many of these values are threatening our survival as individuals and as a society.

Before giving some examples to support this view, let me digress for just a minute to tell you what I mean by the term "values." When we say we hold a value, we are not talking about an abstraction—not simply an idea. Nor are we talking about something external to us; nothing outside of us has intrinsic value. To hold a value is really a process: we ***assign*** value. Something has value to us if we think it is important to our well-being. We measure the value of something or someone by how we behave in relation to them. The more valuable something is for us, the more we expend time, money, and effort to get it or keep it. We can ask people what they value if we want to; but when we really want to understand a person's value system, we have to look at how they behave when given free choices. Now, using this concept of values, let me offer you some evidence that prompts me to think grown-ups are responsible for the mess young people are in.

As a starter, let's look at our values concerning violence in society and our schools. Do we "value" violence and are we transmitting this value to our young people? Sounds crazy, doesn't it? Well, consider the world of adults. The U.S. murder rate has doubled in the last few decades. In 1991 there were 23,000 murders in America—a record high, and 15 times higher than in Japan. Since 1960 there has been a 560% increase in violent crime. The situation with black males is particularly critical. Twenty-five percent of black males between the ages of 23 and 29 are in prison or on parole. That's more than are enrolled in higher

education. The homicide rate for black males ages 20 through 29 is six times higher than for the rest of the population. And what's happening with children? Gunshot wounds are the leading cause of death among males ages 15 to 19. On an average day in America, 10 children under 18 are killed with handguns (Bennett, 1993; Curwin, 1992; Lloyd, Ramsey, & Groennings, 1992; Kuykendall, 1992).

Here is a story that paints a grim picture about what young people are up against. A U.S. Congressman recently suggested that the federal government require televisions to be manufactured so that parents can block violent programs to keep their children from watching them when they are not around. In a House subcommittee hearing, he called TV's so-called "sweeps month" a "prime time crime wave." Other researchers testified to the many studies showing an indisputable link between television violence and increased aggression by viewers, especially children. None of the testimony was as convincing as comments by a TV news producer who remarked, "The old adage 'if it bleeds, it leads' is certainly true during (sweeps) month. Murders have been very good to us. If it's a tragedy, it certainly gains a greater share of the audience." In other words, TV networks produce and broadcast what the public wants. What does this say about our values? Violence sells—which is another way of saying that many people in the general public value violence.

What does all this say about how we neglect our responsibility? Is it not ludicrous for Congress to debate laws about mechanisms to block TV channels? There should already be a mechanism in each home to take care of what children watch on TV: It's called a parent. It is estimated that each week the average parent spends about 30 minutes in conversation with his/her children while most of these children watch about 30 hours of television (Knowledge Network, 1992; Lloyd, Ramsey, & Groennings, 1992).

A second area that gives us a good test of what we value in society is sex. In the world of youth, one in 10 girls aged 15 to 19 gets pregnant each year. Two-thirds of them are unmarried. Sixty percent of teenage mothers have not finished school. The illegitimate birth rate has

increased more than 400% in the last 30 years. Of the estimated 12 million cases of sexually transmitted diseases, 85% occur among teenagers and young adults (Bennett, 1993; Lloyd et al., 1992).

How are adults dealing with these issues? We can get a good idea from this response by a group of teenagers who were asked to react to stories about the "Spur Posse" where boys in a gang earned points for having sex with girls. Listen to what they said:

> As teen-agers we sincerely regret the negative connotations that have been delivered about teens in general. We do NOT think the females who cater to these misguided males are representative of the best in American womankind. However, we do not believe that the attitudes of these guys and girls from California are so different from teens' attitudes all over.
>
> Society does not place the right value and emphasis on sex. The romance and mystery and ambience surrounding lovemaking is pretty much gone for us; it is more of an act. We think that adults in our country have much to do with the attitudes that we are hearing bemoaned lately. For example, the media is filled with sex, sex, sex. It is adults—not teens—who write ads, scripts, and song lyrics. It is adults who sell alcohol, condoms, and suggestive clothing.
>
> Also, we are told on one hand that sex is wonderful and natural; on the other hand we are told that sex is dirty and must not be engaged in by "kids"—just say no, in effect. Yet we are not given the education we need to keep ourselves clean and healthy because it might give us "ideas." Isn't this a mixed message? Is it any wonder that U.S. teens are rather cynical? ("Media Sends," 1993, p. 12B).

What about our values concerning substance abuse? About two-thirds of the adult population uses alcoholic beverages, with about 10 million becoming problem drinkers. The alcohol industry alone spends $1 billion a year to advertise its products; some alcoholic beverage companies even underwrite concert tours directed at teens and preteens. The growing epidemic of alcohol and illegal drug use by pregnant

women, and the associated rising rates of HIV infection, threaten the health and development of 375,000 babies annually (Lloyd et al., 1992).

What are young people doing? About half of all students in middle school have used drugs or alcohol. Almost two-thirds of high school seniors try an illicit drug before they finish high school. Four in five dropouts use drugs regularly. Children raised by alcoholic parents are four times more likely to become alcoholics than children from nonalcoholic homes (Lloyd et al., 1992; National Governor's Association, 1987; "Drug Use Up," 1993; U.S. Department of Education, n.d.).

What about our values concerning the family? Since 1960, the divorce rate has quadrupled and the percentage of children living in single-parent homes has tripled. Three million children now live with their grandparents, a jump of 50% over the last decade (Curwin, 1992; Lloyd et al., 1992).

We could follow this line with other social issues, but you get the point. How does it relate to student discipline? As I said earlier, problems in society are reflected in school. Problems with violence, sexual promiscuity, and individual self-interest spill over into school. And society, as in all crises, is turning to the schools for help. But schools are beginning to cry "Uncle"! How can we deal with all these serious issues and handle all the discipline problems students pose for us daily? How do we reduce student antisocial behavior and at the same time produce more respectful and responsible citizens?

We need a "Just Say No" campaign! We adults need to say "no" more often to young people. We need to tell them that there are just some things that we, as responsible adults, are not going to let them do. Some behavior is just too dangerous, uninformed, or counterproductive to them and to others, and it can ruin their lives now and for the future. We don't have to let students choose everything they want to do all the time. We must provide guidelines for living, set examples of right behavior—which means that we have to say no to children, and teach them when to say no.

Many educators are talking today about student empowerment. We must convince our students that the only way they can become empowered

is through developing self-control. This means that they can gain power to control the events in their lives only by gaining control over their own behavior. We must help them understand that no one can be empowered if he or she is under the control of impulses, bad habits, the absolute authority of someone else, drugs, alcohol, or fear. We must relearn an important truth for ourselves and teach it to our children and students: It is only through self-control and self-management that one can be truly free. So, it is our responsibility to empower young people by helping them move to higher and higher levels of self-control, self-reliance, and social responsibility.

But I am not just talking about young people here. We can't teach these character traits to young people until and unless we as adults are willing to demonstrate them ourselves. We also need a "Just Say No" campaign for ourselves. If we want students to become empowered, to take charge of their lives, to exhibit self-control, to learn to manage their own behavior in positive ways, then we as adults must do the same. We can no longer live by the maxim: "Do as I say, not as I do" where young people are concerned. Rather, we need to remember these maxims as well: "Actions speak louder than words." "A picture is worth a thousand words." "I can't hear what you say because what you are doing speaks so loudly."

I know what you're thinking. All of this sounds very good and very idealistic, but how do we accomplish it? Well, we can't teach young people the kinds of values we want them to learn just by saying no. We must also have a "Just Say Yes" campaign. We don't want to totally control young people and exclude them from decisions that affect their lives. We need a school plan of student management that balances the needs and diversity of the individual student with the needs for cohesion, harmony, and unity of the group. To get at this, we need some way to merge the two issues of school discipline and social expectations so we can deal with them together. We need to merge the old with the new, so to speak.

A tremendous amount of research has already been collected describing the most effective approaches to school discipline—what works and what doesn't work. We need to become serious about this

research, study it, and incorporate these approaches in our classrooms and schools. But we need a larger social framework to hold it all together and extend it into the community now and into the future. I believe that the growing movement of character education can serve as this larger framework. We need to stop thinking of discipline in isolation, as punishment for rule-breaking in school. We must see discipline, and all aspects of student management, within the broader category of character development. We must accept the premise that all discipline procedures have as their ultimate purpose to build character.

Character is more than simple distinguishing features or behaviors of a person. Character represents moral and ethical strength, integrity, and fortitude. In other words, character is all those qualities that represent the best a person can be both as an individual and as a member of society. Thomas Lickona, a renowned author on character education, believes that schools should look at everything they do through a moral lens. He contends that once educators accept that all relationships teach lessons about morality, everything becomes character development. He says that schools will bear greater fruit, however, if they take a systematic approach (Massey, 1993).

I'm not going to describe the process of character education here. However, I do want to draw your attention to a recent development in this area. In February 1993, the Character Education Partnership (CEP), a national coalition of organizations and individuals, was officially incorporated. The CEP advocates a curriculum for character building that revolves around a set of core values that cuts across politics, religion, race, ethnic background, economics, sex, and age. This common core is based on a premise on which we can all agree: Some ways of behaving are better than others when we live in groups. No matter who you are, there are certain kinds of behavioral expectations you must follow because they are right and they are productive for everyone. I will talk more about character education in the chapter entitled "Definition of Discipline."

We must remember, however, that all learning is developmental. In regards to discipline, this means that students won't develop perfect self-control immediately. Rather, they move along a continuum to higher

and higher levels of self control. Everything we do regarding school discipline should help the student develop along a continuum from dependence to independence to interdependence. Although there is a set of ultimate goals that we want everyone to reach in terms of character development and self-control, at each age there is a subset of criteria for appropriate behavior—both for the student and for the teacher. These criteria serve as guidelines for us as teachers and as mileposts for young people on the journey to maturity.

When it comes to developing discipline, self-control, and character in students, some teachers want to point a finger at parents and other social institutions, blame them, and say that schools have no responsibility to do anything. I'm sure you don t feel that way. But if you are having some doubts, let me offer a few more arguments about our responsibility as adults and as teachers.

If a child with a problem creates a problem in the classroom, it doesn't matter where the problem started or who caused it—schools must deal with it. And if the problem occurs in your classroom, you must deal with it. P. Kenneth Komoski (1994) has written that young people spend 81% of their time outside of school and just 19% in school. Just for the sake of argument, then, let's assume that only 19% of what a student learns in life is acquired at school. Wouldn't we still have that 19% to work with and shouldn't we give 100% of our efforts to that 19%? Aren't we responsible for that much? If you doubt what I am saying, answer this question and relate it to school: Whose fault is it if the lion eats the lion tamer?

So let's say "Yes" to ourselves as well as to students. We are the professionals in this situation. We are the adults. We count. What we do makes a difference. We must take control of our schools. We must make them safe and productive places for everyone involved in the educational process.

One of the saddest laments of a teacher is, "I just can't do a thing with this child." That says more about the teacher than it does the child. A worse comment is, "I've washed my hands of that child" or "We've made a deal: the child doesn't cut up or hassle me and I don't put any pressure on or hassle the child." As adults we have no right to behave in this way.

We are supposed to know what to do. We can't wash our hands of children or let them slide by because it is easier for us. We are the grown-ups and we need to take responsibility. And the way we do all this will not only determine our own safety and sanity, but it might make a difference in whether the child with a problem leaves school with a solution.

How do we as teachers do our part to accomplish this? The first step is to reexamine our beliefs, values, and behaviors. In the next chapter you will gain a better understanding of yourself as well as the kinds of relationships necessary to foster development of discipline, self-control, and character in students at risk.

Chapter Three

TEACHER ATTITUDES AND CHARACTERISTICS

"I hope Johnny doesn't come to school today."

"I could do a much better job of teaching if I didn't have to spend so much time with Suki."

"Manuel just doesn't need to be in school; he can't learn and he just keeps other students from learning."

"My principal says I have to cover this material; if Angelina can't keep up, that's just tough."

"Floyd, school is for learning; I don't have time to deal with your personal problems."

"All these new methods they want us to use are just fads; I learned from a teacher who taught the way I do now, so why can't Leroya learn that way, too?"

"Abraham doesn't know what he needs to know; why should I ask him what I should be teaching?"

"I don't have time to get Edwina's parents involved in her school work; they won't even come to open house."

"I'm fed up with you always asking me questions, Chaito; if you would just pay attention, you could keep up."

"Persennia, all you want me to do is entertain you; I'm a teacher, not a comedian."

Have you ever said anything like this? Have you ever thought anything like this? Have you ever heard another teacher say anything like this? Before you read the rest of this chapter, please complete the following rating scale.

EXERCISE 1: For each pair of statements, place a mark in the space closest to the one that best describes your current belief about students at risk. It will take only a couple of minutes. No one else has to see your results, SO BE HONEST WITH YOURSELF!

1.	School is for everyone.	___ ___ ___	Not all children belong in school.
2.	All children can learn.	___ ___ ___	Not all children can learn.
3.	I don't like some students.	___ ___ ___	I like all students but not all student behaviors.
4.	It's my job to make instruction fit student needs.	___ ___ ___	Instruction is here for students who want it.
5.	I know this student won't make it.	___ ___ ___	This student can make it so I'll encourage and assist.
6.	Don't bring your outside problems into my classroom.	___ ___ ___	If an individual condition or need is a barrier to learning, I must address it so learning can occur.
7.	Education is a team sport so teachers and students must agree on goals.	___ ___ ___	Students must conform to my expectations and adjust to my system.
8.	I've always taught it this way.	___ ___ ___	Things change so I must be flexible.

These statements reveal some of the beliefs you hold about school and students. Sandy Addis, a friend of mine who directed a districtwide dropout prevention program, spent a lot of time studying the teachers and students in his program. He discovered something very important: Teachers who are successful with students at risk hold certain beliefs about them. Sandy found that what a teacher believes about students at risk—whether in the area of academic achievement, attendance, or discipline—greatly affects how they act toward those students, which in turn affects student success (Addis, 1991).

Compare your ratings of statements in Exercise 1 with Sandy's finding about these teachers who are successful with students at risk.

School is for everyone. Schools must be "equal opportunity" institutions; students cannot become "push-outs" because some educators believe they shouldn't be in school. Teachers who are successful with students at risk believe that free public education is a basic principle in a democratic, multicultural, pluralistic society. Teachers are the guardians of this principle. They must believe it and practice it in their everyday behavior with students. These teachers demonstrate the philosophy of "invitational learning" advocated by Purkey and Novak (1984) by accepting students as able, valuable, and responsible.

All children can learn and every student can make it; I'll encourage and assist. These teachers reject the insidious belief that some children can't learn. They reflect the findings from a large body of research which reveals that most students, even disadvantaged ones, can learn what the schools have to teach if schools provide favorable learning conditions (Bloom, 1981, 1982; Slavin, Madden, Dolan, Wasik, Ross, & Smith, 1994).

I'll show students I like them even when I disapprove of their behavior. When these teachers discipline students, they make a distinction between the person and the behavior. They follow Kuykendall's (1992) suggestion that "there are no 'bad children,' just 'inappropriate behavior'" (p. 74). They help students understand that consequences are for inappropriate behavior rather than for the student's personal characteristics (Brendtro, Brokenleg, & Van Bockern, 1990).

I'll go the extra mile to help my students. These teachers believe that their responsibility to students is not restricted by the classroom walls. They meet with students before and after school, communicate with parents, and spend much time on their lessons at home. They are advocates for students in school and the community (Wayson et al., 1982).

If a human condition or need is a barrier to learning, I'll address it so learning can occur; it's my job to make instruction fit students' needs. These teachers attribute academic failure not so much to a lack of ability in students as to life conditions or needs in students that form barriers to their success. Student motivation is one important factor that teachers must consider, and I'll look at it in more detail in another chapter. Other factors include needs in health and nutrition, physical and psychological safety, social relationships, and family conditions. According to Curwin (1992), such conditions and needs "not only negatively affect children, but also strongly influence the way children behave in school and how we must adapt to teach them" (p. 9).

Education is a team sport; my students and I must agree on goals. These teachers believe that they will be more successful if they involve their students in goal setting and in planning how to achieve those goals. In describing his work with aggressive youngsters, Goldstein (1988) stated that students attended training sessions more regularly and participated more enthusiastically when he matched learning objectives and activities with the real problems students were facing in their lives everyday. Goldstein still followed the curriculum he had designed; he simply adapted the order in which it was studied based on student needs and interests. He accomplished his goals and at the same time increased the likelihood that students would learn the skills they needed.

Students, subject matter, and methods change; I must be flexible. These teachers understand that student populations are more diverse and that the world is changing more rapidly than in the past. New curriculum frameworks and national standards are creating pressure on schools to change. As the role of the school changes, so must the role of the teacher.

You may be thinking that a teacher would have to be either an idiot or a hard-hearted scoundrel not to admit holding these beliefs. However, ***saying*** that we hold a belief is quite different from ***holding*** that belief and ***letting it direct our behavior***. If we are to make any headway toward improving ourselves, no matter which area of our lives we are considering, we must be honest about what we believe.

Sandy also discovered that successful teachers possess certain characteristics and behaviors that are evident in their work with students at risk.

EXERCISE 2: See how you rate on characteristics and behaviors that seem to be effective with students at risk. Rate each statement from 1-10, with 10 being high.

_____ Committed to students at risk.

_____ Willing to try innovative approaches.

_____ Patient.

_____ Enthusiastic about teaching students at risk.

_____ Energetic.

_____ Optimistic about students—look for good in all.

_____ Calm and collected when maintaining discipline.

_____ Role model for students at risk.

_____ Persistent—will try, try again with problem students.

_____ Cooperative with other school staff and parents.

Sandy found that teachers who are successful with students at risk have certain characteristics and manifest those characteristics in their relationships with their students, other staff, parents, and community volunteers. Again, you can compare your responses to the items in Exercise 2 with Sandy's findings about these teachers.

Care about and respect students at risk and treat them with dignity. When asked, "What is it about your teachers that makes a difference in whether you succeed or fail?" students at risk overwhelmingly responded: "They care about me and treat me like I am important" (Hamby, 1992b). Curwin and Mendler (1988) popularized the concept of "Discipline with Dignity." They contended that, "It is essential to replace competitive metaphors in schools with new images of cooperation, mutual respect, and commitment to common goals for the good of everyone in the classroom" (p. 2). Wayson (1989) suggested that teachers must practice what they preach—show courtesy and respect, admit mistakes, and present themselves as human beings with faults.

Are patient with students. These teachers understand that some students need more time than others to learn. Many students at risk need additional instructions, explanations, and practice before they grasp a concept or develop a skill. Patience means waiting, repeating, and adjusting. A basic principle of mastery learning (Bloom, 1981) holds that most students can learn if they are given enough time and if they use that time engaging in learning the task. The concept of "wait time" has been well-established as an important factor in student learning (Denham & Lieberman, 1980). One of the best examples of patience I have heard involved the great behaviorist, B. F. Skinner. Skinner was demonstrating the way he taught pigeons to recognize letters of the alphabet, play ping-pong, and peck certain geometric shapes and not others. He stated that this was very simple behavior and that pigeons were capable of much more sophisticated behaviors. When someone asked him, "Just what can you teach a pigeon to do?" Skinner replied, "It's simply a matter of my own patience."

Use innovative approaches until something works. Successful teachers combine patience with persistence. They use a wide variety of approaches to accommodate the diversity among students (Curwin &

Mendler, 1988; Kuykendall, 1992). They realize that it takes time for serious changes to occur, so they look for small initial signs that a student might be changing and reward small improvements. If they are not successful in their first attempts, they try and try again. If one technique seems not to work, they try another one. What might work for one student in one situation might not work for another, or even for the same student in another situation. Sometimes they find it necessary to continue an intervention for a long time before it begins to have an effect (Molnar & Lindquist, 1989).

Look for good in all students. One of the most common characteristics of students at risk is that they often see themselves as failures. They do not have a rich store of positive experiences to draw upon and can become cynical about themselves and their future. Successful teachers help these students discover the hidden potential within themselves. They not only help students develop the competence to succeed, but also the confidence to succeed with dignity (Curwin, 1992).

Demonstrate enthusiasm and energy in working with students at risk. Working with students at risk is labor intensive; that is, it takes more time and energy than working with students who are not at risk (Addis, 1991). Not only must teachers have high levels of energy, but they must demonstrate that energy in the enthusiastic way they teach and relate to students. Students at risk respond to the enthusiastic teacher because this behavior is a sign to them that the teacher cares and is willing to work hard to see that they succeed.

Perceive themselves as professionals with duties beyond the classroom. Successful teachers consider discipline as part of their job description. They refuse to succumb to the common belief that all problems of students at risk arise outside of school and that teachers have little power to resolve these problems (Curwin, 1992). These teachers are willing to meet with students before and after school, stay in close contact with parents, work in teams with other school staff, and work with community service personnel and volunteers to help these students. They also spend time reading journals and books and take an active role in professional organizations.

Possess high self-esteem and take responsibility for their own actions. Teachers with low self-esteem are not very successful with students at risk because they lack the confidence and the courage to take risks themselves to do what is necessary to see that their students succeed. Successful teachers are those who believe in themselves as well as their students. They believe that they count in the scheme of things. They believe that they can make a difference, and they try very hard to do so. Rather than blaming the parents for the child's problem, they seek to enlist the parents as cohorts in solving the child's problem.

Hold high expectations for students and help students achieve them. Successful teachers convey the attitude to students that, where discipline is concerned, developing responsibility is more important than obedience. They set high expectations for students (Mendler, 1992), communicate these expectations to students in a language they can understand (Molnar & Lindquist, 1989), serve as role models, and provide all the support they can to help students meet those expectations. They avoid doing for children what the children can do for themselves and give students as many choices as they can that the students can handle at their developmental level. They give children regular responsibilities and encourage and expect students to finish what they start. They don't rescue students too quickly when they are having problems if they think the students can work it out for themselves (Curwin & Mendler, 1990).

Understanding yourself—your beliefs, your characteristics, your behavior—is an important part of your work with students at risk. It is also important to understand students who are at risk. In the next chapter, I will present research-based principles about student development and motivation which are strongly related to successful student discipline and management.

Chapter Four

PRINCIPLES OF MOTIVATION

EXERCISE: The statements below describe some student behaviors. Each statement is followed by spaces marked "Before" and "After." Before you read the chapter, write in the "Before" blank a brief statement explaining *why* each student behaved that way. Then, after you have read the chapter, complete the "After" blank if you have something to add or change.

- A student will behave and do her work in your class, but is a terror in another class.

  Before_____

  _____

  _____

  After_____

  _____

  _____

- A varsity football player loves sky diving and will jump from a plane at 10,000 feet, yet breaks into a cold sweat when you ask him to speak in front of the class.

  Before_____

  _____

  _____

  After_____

  _____

  _____

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EXERCISE (Continued)

- A student will act like an angel when she is with you alone, but becomes a monster when three of her friends are with her.

  Before_____

  _____

  _____

  After_____

  _____

  _____

- A student will smoke, take drugs, or cut school even when he knows that these things will hurt him.

  Before_____

  _____

  _____

  After_____

  _____

  _____

- A student misbehaves constantly although you send her to the office regularly for punishment

  Before_____

  _____

  _____

  After_____

  _____

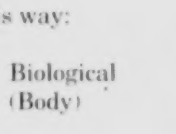
  _____

We continue to puzzle over these and similar ways our students behave in school. The behavior seems so contradictory. We often say that a student's behavior "just doesn't make sense." What we fail to realize is that this seemingly irrational behavior makes very good sense in light of research on human development, learning, and motivation. Using some of this research, I have developed eight principles to help you better understand your students' behavior and to guide your relationships with them.

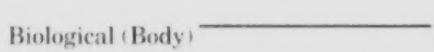
Principle 1: Humans are biopsychological beings.

Biopsychological beings! That's a $50 term, isn't it? What in the world does it mean? Simply that each of us has a physical body and a psychological self. However, instead of thinking of the body and the self as separate things, we need to think of them as complementary parts of a whole. Stop for a second and think about your physical body and your psychological self. Are they really separate entities? It will help if you can think of your body and your self existing along a dimension rather than as categories.

Don't think this way:



Think this way:



When you think about body and self existing along a dimension, it is difficult, and maybe even impossible, to determine where biological functioning ends and psychological functioning begins. For convenience, we can identify certain characteristics as more biological (eye color) and others as more psychological (self-concept). However, these attributes exist in the same person and can interact in subtle ways. For example, a child may be proud that she is the only one in her class with brown eyes

(it makes her special), or she could feel so different from everyone else that she wants contact lenses that will change her eye color to match other class members.

The important point is that human existence is unitary. We couldn't have a psychological self without a biological body; however, a biological body devoid of a psychological self, such as in a brain-dead person, is meaningless from an individual perspective. This concept of unitary human existence is very important to understanding motivation.

Principle 2: Survival is the primary motivating force for humans.

Each of us has a genetically-programmed need to survive. People sometimes think that the idea of survival is too simplistic and materialistic as an explanation for motivation. Furthermore, I'm sure you can offer examples to illustrate how people often act in ways that seem counterproductive to their well-being. You might ask, if survival is our most primary need, why would a person commit suicide? Of course, survival means staying alive biologically. However, thinking of survival simply as maintaining physical existence is too narrow, and it masks the power of survival to explain human motivation. Survival must be understood and interpreted along the biopsychological continuum. This means that we not only strive to prolong our biological existence, we also struggle to preserve our psychological selves. Combs and Snygg (1959) wrote that our basic need is the preservation of the self:

> From birth to death the maintenance of the . . . self is the most pressing, the most crucial, if not the only task of existence. To maintain this personal organization of the self in the universe in which he lives, however, requires of a human being much more than mere biological survival. Man lives in a changing world . . . . Because we are aware of the future. . ., it is necessary to enhance the self against the exigencies of tomorrow . . . . Thus man seeks not merely the maintenance of *a* self but the development of an *adequate* self—a self capable of dealing effectively and efficiently with. . . life, both now and in the future (italics in the original) (p. 45).

Although Combs and Snygg probably overstate the case for the psychological side of life, they do show that maintaining and enhancing the self is an extremely powerful motivating force in our lives. The important point is that our psychological selves are just as important to us as our physical bodies. This concept contradicts Abraham Maslow's theory of hierarchy of needs (1968). Maslow contends that we must meet "basic" needs (safety, security, nourishment) before we are motivated to satisfy "being" needs (approval, self-actualization). The idea presented here is that we seek to meet both basic (biological) needs and being (psychological) needs simultaneously. Furthermore, these needs are not hierarchical; that is, basic needs do not supercede being needs, except, maybe, during infancy. Sometimes, a student's desire for attention from parents, teachers, or peers is more important than eating or being safe. Also, a student might attempt to protect her self-esteem by fighting, which could result in bodily harm. When we relate this concept to classroom discipline, it helps us see that our rules must ensure students' safety and security and at the same time protect students' self-concepts and self-esteem.

One of the most interesting paradoxes in life, and one which confuses common thinking about survival, is that biological and psychological survival are often in conflict. We can do things we feel are necessary for our psychological survival but which may be detrimental to our physical well-being (e.g., smoking cigarettes, going to war to show bravery and gain recognition, exploiting natural resources for use in creature comforts). Sometimes in an attempt to stay alive physically, we can damage our psychological selves (e.g., deserting in battle and being branded a coward or embezzling funds and being called a thief).

It is not a given in life that biological and psychological survival must be in conflict; quite often, they are in harmony. However, each day we are faced with the task of how to balance our needs for health and security (so we don't get sick and die or get killed by accident) with our needs to protect and enhance our self-identity and esteem. Our happiness and success in life are a function of how well we are able to achieve this balance between these two powerful motivating forces.

Principle 3: Humans are valuing beings.

We are genetically programmed to place value on our environment and even on ourselves. Every minute of every day, each of us encounters people, things, and events in our lives that we must deal with in some way. In every instance, we are faced with the question: What does this mean to me or for me? To understand this process, we must ask: What does "meaning" mean? A thing is meaningful if it has worth, importance, or value. How do we determine if something or someone has "meaning" for us? We determine the worth, importance, or value of anything by the degree to which we believe it is enhancing or threatening to our biological or psychological survival.

The following graphic will help you understand the value scale we use to measure the meaning of things:

Threat ⟶ Enhancement

Notice that the arrow points from "Threat" to "Enhancement." This means that we will always move away from things we consider bad for us and toward things we consider good for us. Objects, events, and situations are not inherently valuable; we must assign value to them. Of course, at the purely biological end of the biopsychological dimension, our bodies can automatically identify what is enhancing and what is threatening, and respond without our having to consciously think about it. At the psychological end of the dimension, however, we must learn what is enhancing and what is threatening. Motivation is highly related to the concept of valuing. The intensity of arousal we feel about something and the direction we move relative to something is often determined by the degree of personal meaning we assign to it. If we can understand what students value, that is, what they find worthwhile, important, or interesting, we are on the track to understanding what motivates them.

Principle 4: Consequences are basic to motivation.

Motivation, value, and personal meaning are all related to the concept of consequences. No matter what we do, something always follows. We call this something the consequence. A consequence is the effect of our actions. We learn from experience when we receive feedback about the consequences of our behavior; that is, we discover what effect our behavior has had on someone or something. If our behavior allows us to obtain something enhancing (good) or avoid or escape from something threatening (bad), we say the consequence was positive. When our behavior produces positive consequences, we are more likely to engage in that behavior in the future in similar circumstances. If our behavior leads to something bad or takes away something good, we say the consequence was negative. When our behavior produces negative consequences, we are less likely to repeat that behavior in similar circumstances in the future.

I'll summarize these ideas about consequences into five generalizations:

1. We tend to do things we perceive as enhancing to our survival—that is, we are more likely to engage in and continue any behavior or action that will produce or lead to pleasure, satisfaction, safety, security, approval, acceptance, happiness, or self-esteem. Some people call this ***positive reinforcement***.

2. We tend to do things to avoid or to escape from anything we perceive as threatening to our survival—that is, we are more likely to engage in and continue behaviors or actions that help us avoid or get away from pain, aversiveness, discomfort, rejection, embarrassment, or sadness. Some people call this ***negative reinforcement***.

3. We tend to stop doing things that produce or lead to pain, aversiveness, discomfort, rejection, embarrassment, sadness, or anything that we perceive as threatening to our survival. Some people call this ***punishment***.

4. We tend to stop doing things that push us away from or cause us to lose things that produce or lead to pleasure, satisfaction, safety, security, approval, acceptance, happiness, self-esteem, or anything we perceive as enhancing our survival. Some people call this punishment, but with the special label of ***response cost***.

5. We tend to stop doing things that have no effect or lead to no payoffs. Some people call this ***extinction***. It is the basis for the practice of "time out" rooms.

Principle 5: Motivation is a function of individual perception.

Survival and what leads to survival are matters of individual perception and differ from person to person. Whatever is enhancing or threatening is mainly a matter of individual perception; that is, "Beauty is in the eyes of the beholder!" "One person's meat is another's poison!" "Different strokes for different folks!"

What is perception? It is the way we interpret the world, ourselves, and our relationships to the world. What is this "world" and what can we actually know about it? What is "reality"? We all know that reality is what actually exists—what is "really" there, physically in the environment. However, we can never know or understand the world completely, truly, or fully. Rather, we construct our own unique views of the world from information we receive through interaction with it. I call this unique construction of the world "perceived reality." Our perceived reality might be quite different from what reality is like in fact. Furthermore, we might perceive the same behavior differently for ourselves than for others, as the following examples so clearly show:

From the teacher's perspective about student's behavior. . .	about own behavior. . .
"She was late to class."	"I simply couldn't make it."
"His desk is a mess."	"It may look cluttered but I know where everything is in my room."
"He can't meet my expectations."	"The principal expects too much."
"She talks all the time."	"I like to express my opinion."
"She acts so bored."	"I am so tired of the same old thing."
"He never gets his work done."	"I have so much to do, I'll have to turn in my reports later."
"She's off in some dream world."	"I often spend time reflecting."
"He never remembers."	"Oh, I forgot the media requests were due yesterday."

There is enough commonality in the world and in the way we understand it to allow us to communicate and get along with each other without too many problems. However, this uniqueness in perception that each of us brings to a situation can cause disagreements and conflicts at times. The seriousness of the conflicts will be basically a function of the degree to which our perceptions differ. Furthermore, individuals can have serious problems to the degree that their perceived reality differs from actual reality.

Perception is a result of our unique biological make-ups interacting with a unique set of experiences we have in life. Therefore, what one person sees as enhancing, another might view as threatening. This explains the great variation in preferences, interests, attitudes, and values among individuals. It also means that most personal conflicts are

values conflicts—that is, differences of opinion about what is good or bad for one's biological or psychological survival. Our failure to understand this concept of perceived reality causes us much grief in teaching, motivating, and disciplining students. Once we begin to see that each student filters what we say and do through a screen of personal perceptions developed over a long period of time in a particular environment, it is much easier to relate to that student. This is especially true when we recognize that a value system is a set of emotions attached to a constellation of beliefs about what will help or hurt us as we try to stay alive and gain personal significance.

Furthermore, since perception is basically a matter of personal experience, whether or not something is actually enhancing or threatening to an individual is irrelevant to understanding that person's behavior. It is the person's perception of things that is important. According to Combs and Snygg (1959), "...the factors effective in determining the behavior of an individual are those, and only those, which are experienced by the individual at the time of his behavior. The experiences we call perceptions...." (p. 20).

Principle 6: Each human being seeks personal identity in a social setting.

As I've already noted, each of us is born with a potential to develop a unique set of characteristics sometimes called the "self-concept" or "identity." It is important to remember that the actualization of this set of unique characteristics we call the "self" occurs within a social context. Indeed, a large part of who we are as individuals is a function of our membership in a group. Not everything that we call "self" is determined by the people around us. However, we probably would have no concept of "I" as we know it without association with others (Mead, 1934).

One of the most complicated problems of living is how to maintain a personal identity while participating as an effective member of a group. Conversely, the group must face the problem of how to protect its

cohesion and unity while providing a flexible environment which will encourage individuality without unduly suppressing it. Many discipline problems can be reduced to the question of how to resolve conflicts between the individual and the group.

Principle 7: All behavior is adaptive.

If survival is our main task in life, how do we achieve it? Through adaptation, another misunderstood process. We commonly think of adaptation simply as how we change ourselves to the demands of life situations. It is more beneficial to us if we consider adaptation as the dynamic interaction between the individual and the environment that produces changes in both at the same time. We are changed by environmental influences and we also change the environment, when possible, to meet our own needs. Adaptation is reciprocal. We are not just passive receptors of what happens to us; we are active in shaping our world. Once we change in response to environmental demands, we then can act in new ways not possible before. Once we change the environment, that change can affect us in new ways.

Development of the automobile is a good example of adaptation. The invention of the automobile changed our lives in profound ways. Some changes were positive and some not so positive. It reduced the time it took to get from place to place, thereby giving us extra time to do other things. However, we had to work longer hours to buy it and maintain it. It also meant traffic jams, accidents, and pollution. Because of the auto, we made tremendous changes in the environment. We built super highways and great bridges to accommodate more and more cars, but we also cluttered the countryside with billboards. We built interstates to give us quick access to every part of our country. Unfortunately for large cities, these interstates allowed for the middle class exodus to the suburbs. As you can see, each time we changed the environment, we were forced to change in return. Of course, this is a single example. Think of the multitude of interactions in which we engage individually

and collectively each day. When you couple this idea with the concept of ecology—where the change in one part of a system affects the other parts of the system—you can begin to understand the complexity of human existence and the difficulties we face not only in society but in the school and classroom as well.

Jean Piaget (1970) defined intelligence as the process of making better and better adaptations. It is important that we teach our students how to change to accommodate to the pressures of life and the expectations of other people. It is also important that we teach them the intellectual, personal, and social skills necessary for them to change the world in positive ways to make life better for themselves and for others.

Principle 8: Humans are always motivated.

There is no such thing as an unmotivated human being. That's hard to believe if you're a teacher, isn't it? What do we mean when we say a student is unmotivated? Usually we mean that we can't get them to do what we want them to do or to go in the direction we want them to go or to behave with the enthusiasm we think they should. For example, a student in math rarely completes her class assignments. The teacher says she is lazy; the student says that math is boring. Another student "talks back" to the teacher. The teacher says the student is disrespectful; the student says he has to show his classmates that no one can push him around. We must remember, however, that each of us is always doing something to ensure survival—both biologically and psychologically. We can also heed the words of Combs and Snygg (1959) who wrote, "When people seem to us to be unmotivated, it is not because they are really so, but because we don't understand their goals. . . . that from the point of view of the behaver himself, he is never unmotivated" (pp. 56-57).

I'm not saying that what we want is bad for students. In light of what I have already said about adult role models, it is the teacher's obligation to provide order and guidance to students. However, if we want to move students in the desired direction with appropriate intensity, we must understand how they perceive the situation. Is our goal their goal? Do

they have the knowledge and skills to achieve that goal? Do they understand and possess appropriate goal-seeking behavior? If not, then how do we make it so? One thing is for certain: We can do it only if we approach motivation from a student's perspective.

I want to conclude this chapter with a word about motivation and students at risk. ***They are no different from other students in the mechanisms that determine motivation***. The same principles apply to students at risk as to other students. They come to have beliefs and values about themselves, their world, and their relationship to it just like everyone else. We may not always agree with their beliefs and values, and we certainly don't have to tolerate inappropriate, dangerous, and destructive behavior that comes from some of these beliefs and values. However, we will have much more success in motivating them and helping them learn to the degree that we understand the eight principles described in this chapter.

Now that you have read this chapter, return to the statements at the beginning and determine if you want to change or add anything to what you wrote in the "Before" blanks. Write your additions or changes in the "After" blanks.

In the next chapter, I describe a definition of discipline and enumerate some goals and purposes of discipline and student management.

Chapter Five

Definition Of Discipline

EXERCISE 1. Before you read this chapter, write your definition of discipline.

I've been talking about discipline as if we all agreed on what it is and how to achieve it with students. I guess it's time for me to define some terms so we can all ride on the same tracks. We can avoid misunderstanding and confusion if we realize that discipline is both a process and an outcome.

Discipline Is a Process

When we say, "Teachers must discipline students," or "Students must discipline themselves," we're talking about discipline as a process. The idea here is that we do something to someone else or to ourselves in an effort to control behavior. We assume that there is a set of practices and techniques we can use to gain control of others or ourselves; something we can do to bring about order to our lives. Otherwise, self-discipline is either something we are born with or something we learn at random.

Therefore, it is important for us to understand that discipline is learned and can be taught. The Phi Delta Kappa Commission on Discipline (Wayson, DeVoss, Kaeser, Lasley, & Pinnell, 1982) issued a report that said that not only ***can*** discipline be taught—it ***must*** be taught. According to the Commission, "One principal goal of education is to teach discipline, . . . the most basic of all 'basics' . . . The challenge for educators and all adults . . . is to help children develop the skills of responsible behavior by creating an environment in which children may acquire those skills" (p. 1). Richard Curwin and Allen Mendler (1990) contend that discipline is part of the process of learning and that it works best as an integral part of education.

Unfortunately, educators do not always agree about the school's role in discipline. Many teachers and administrators think that discipline is a job for parents; that students should come to school already knowing how to behave so teachers can get on with the job of teaching. If we view discipline and education as separate, we are likely to spend much of our time in school using ". . . repressing measures to establish order rather than to provide positive educational approaches to discipline that educators know will work" (Wayson et al., 1982, p. 1). If, on the other hand, we believe that discipline is a matter of instruction and should be a part of the curriculum, then we will accept it as part of our primary responsibilities as teachers.

According to Wayson and his colleagues, discipline is best taught by teachers who are willing to impose it on themselves. To teach self-discipline, one must possess self-discipline. The teacher is the adult in the classroom. The teacher must set the standard of behavior and then live up to it as well as hold it up for students. Everyone is a role model; teachers can't have one set of rules of behavior for students and a different one for themselves. As teachers, we can't demand that students treat others with respect, come to class prepared, be honest, and strive to meet high expectations if we are not willing to do these things ourselves.

Many students at risk have a history of discipline problems. They have not responded positively to traditional discipline approaches that

are adversarial and negative. Schools have often resembled battlegrounds—the teachers on one side and students on the other—with both suffering casualties from time to time. In recent years, many educators who work with students at risk have found that nontraditional approaches often work best for these students. They have tried to replace the "battlefield syndrome" with the less competitive approach of encouraging cooperation, mutual respect, and commitment to common goals for the good of everyone in the classroom (Curwin & Mendler, 1988).

Our traditional approach to discipline leads us to the conclusion that students are broke and it's our job to fix them. Curwin and Mendler (1990) believe that we perceive discipline so often in negative terms because we think students are bad and we must straighten them out. They offer another view: Think of rule violations as consequences of poor choices. From this point of view, then, the way to improve discipline is to help students improve their choices. The process of discipline becomes a series of experiences designed to increase students' skills in decision making and to develop greater awareness of the relationship between what they do and what happens when they do it. According to Curwin and Mendler, "A farmer doesn't lecture or scold crops into growing. The farmer provides nutrients, the best soil and water to establish the best possible growing environment. In the same way. . .teachers are most effective in discipline when they provide the best possible growing environment. . . . When discipline is viewed as a teaching opportunity rather than as a repair, much of the stress of helping children grow and learn is reduced. Many of the battles are minimized, because our challenge isn't to win or to change the child. Our focus is to help the child become better at being who he or she is" (1990, pp. 1-2).

Discipline Is an Outcome

We sometimes say, "I am very disciplined," or "My students have self-discipline." In this case, we are thinking of discipline as an outcome—a set of characteristics that distinguishes a disciplined person from an undisciplined one. Wayson and his colleagues (1982) describe

discipline as ". . . the ability to identify the essential character of a situation or circumstance, to determine one's most constructive role in it, and to carry out that role directly and to sustain it as long as necessary" (p. 1).

The ultimate goal of discipline (process) is self-discipline (outcome). Self-discipline simply means that people can act appropriately, positively, productively, and constructively even when no authority figure is present to correct them. In other words, they discipline themselves; they are disciplined. Wayson believes that being disciplined is a part of being educated, and being self-disciplined is the highest form of preparation for effective citizenship.

EXERCISE 2: What are the characteristics of a person who is disciplined? Before you continue reading, make your own list of these characteristics and compare your list with mine.

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Remember, we need to view self-discipline as developmental; that is, the way a person exhibits characteristics of self-control must be viewed from the standpoint of the person's age and developmental level. Self-discipline is not an all-or-nothing proposition. With this in mind, we can say that a disciplined person displays at least six traits.

1. ***Competence:*** The disciplined person has developed and continues to develop capabilities to master life's tasks. Ignorance and incompetence make it difficult to gain any sense of control over the

forces that shape a person's life. A student needs to be competent in at least three areas. ***Academic competence*** means that the student is learning the skills, knowledge, and understandings that allow for success in school and beyond. ***Vocational competence*** means that the student is making decisions about a career as well as learning those skills necessary to get and succeed in a job. ***Psychomotor competence*** means that the student is developing manipulative skills, increasing physical strength and dexterity, and practicing good health habits.

2. ***Confidence:*** To be self-disciplined is to be self-assured. We often use the term self-esteem in relation to confidence. However, confidence goes beyond a feeling of self-worth; it is a "can do" attitude, a sense of having control of the factors that affect one's life. A student who is confident believes in his or her abilities to get the job done. William Glasser (1992) believes that self-discipline can develop only when our management techniques allow students to exert power over their lives. Brendtro et al. (1990), following Glasser's line of reasoning, believe that "... discipline never really succeeds if it does not recognize the universal need of all persons to be free, to be in control of themselves, and to be able to influence others" (p. 43). If we want to build this kind of confidence in students, therefore, we must give them a certain degree of independence to try and fail and try again within an atmosphere of caring and guidance.

3. ***Commitment:*** Erik Erikson (Maier, 1965) believed that the development of a sense of identity was one of our most crucial tasks in life. School is an important place for helping students ask and answer questions like: "Who am I?" "Where do I fit in the scheme of things?" "Where am I going?" Erikson, of course, saw the development of personal identity growing out of the way a child mastered other developmental tasks within a social community. That is, personal identity is to a great extent a result of social belonging. We are individuals within a social context; who we are is to a great degree who others say we are and the attributes they assign to us. Part of who we are as individuals can be defined as who we are as members of groups—families, schools, churches, clubs. Because we find part of our identity in others, either as individuals or groups, we develop a sense of commitment to them—that is, we are

bound emotionally to them. Therefore, just as we desire and work to achieve the best for ourselves, so when we identify with another person or an institution, we do the same. The more that students identify with and feel they belong to the school, the more committed they will be to coming to school, behaving appropriately, and working for the welfare of everyone at school.

4. ***Cooperation:*** Competence, confidence, and commitment all connote a looking inward. Cooperation, on the other hand, is more other-directed. A self-disciplined person is both willing and able to work with others to accomplish mutually-beneficial goals. When we cooperate with others, we display a variety of important social skills. We initiate contacts, communicate clearly, listen attentively, assert ourselves tactfully, express needs and feelings positively, and seek solutions to common problems to mention just a few (Johnson, Jason, & Betts, 1990). We must also know how to resolve conflicts with others in positive and nondestructive ways. Although we often think of school mostly in terms of academic achievement, we would do well to adopt the view of Johnson and his colleagues that "School settings can . . . offer students numerous opportunities to discuss social skills, practice using them, and receive feedback on their performance."

5. ***Control:*** Discipline is more than exerting control over others; it is showing self-control as well. Self-control means self-direction. We identify goals, set priorities, and attend to and complete tasks on our own. Self-control means delay of gratification. We can put things off until a later time, we can wait, we are patient. In this push-button age of instant pleasure, we are less and less willing to work hard now for good things to come later. Self-control means being orderly. We can follow rules because we understand that they benefit us as well as others.

6. ***Character:*** Although character has not been a popular subject in public schools in recent years, the development of character should be the ultimate goal of discipline. Thomas Lickona, a developmental psychologist who has written extensively about character education, quoted these words of Theodore Roosevelt: "To educate a person in mind and not in morals is to educate a menace to society" (1993, p. 6). Lickona

believes that character encompasses the cognitive, affective, and behavioral aspects of morality. A student with high character knows what is good, desires to be good, and does good.

We don't emphasize character education in school today because we are not able to agree on which values to teach. Many people contend that one set of values is as good as another. Also, many people believe that morality and religion are the same thing; if the practice of religion is to be forbidden by the Supreme Court, so is the practice of moral teaching. However, advocates of moral education believe that a set of ethical values exists which lets us avoid the controversy over separation of church and state. These values can be embraced by all religious faiths and are the kinds of values that the great majority of parents want their children to learn.

In March 1993, a group of leaders from business, labor, government, faith communities, and the media joined with parents and youth to organize the Character Education Partnership. The major goal of this national coalition is to help schools focus on character education as an important educational objective. The Character Education Partnership suggests that character education rests on the development of six core values. A person of high character is (1) trustworthy, (2) respectful, (3) responsible, (4) fair, (5) caring, and (6) a good citizen. More information on the Character Education Partnership is included in the Resource section.

We can see, then, that defining discipline as both a process and an outcome is helpful in two ways: It lets us develop an optimistic attitude that we can indeed have an impact on how students behave in school, and it gives us a set of criteria to help us decide if we have been successful. With this concept of discipline in mind, let me offer some goals and purposes for discipline to guide us in our efforts.

Goals and Purposes of Discipline

Goals are actually a reflection of our needs. They represent what we want to accomplish in order to have a more satisfying life. Discipline in school should be directed toward accomplishing the following goals:

1. ***To manage groups to provide the greatest short-term and long-term benefit for all concerned—students, school staff, parents, community.*** Very few teachers have the luxury of a one-on-one teaching situation; most school instruction is done in groups. Therefore, the primary goal of discipline is to establish and maintain an environment in which groups can work in an orderly, effective, and efficient manner.

2. ***To deal effectively with students whose behavior interferes with achieving Goal 1.*** Most students will respond to guidelines, rules, and boundaries that define expected behavior in a group. However, groups are composed of individuals. Individual differences require individual attention. Therefore, we need techniques and methods for dealing with those students who either don't know how to behave in a group setting or who are unwilling to behave appropriately. Dealing with those who don't know is easy: We just teach them how to behave appropriately. Dealing with those who are unwilling—that is, those who are defiantly and intentionally disruptive—is a more difficult task. Fortunately, this latter group includes a minority of students. Unfortunately, they occupy an inordinate amount of a school's time and effort and often are the ones that require help beyond that which the regular public school program can provide.

3. ***To achieve both Goals 1 and 2 in such a way that each individual develops character.*** As I have already stated, the ultimate goal of all discipline is to develop self-discipline which defines the character of the happy, productive citizen.

In order to achieve these three goals, schools will need to develop rules and guidelines for at least the following six specific purposes: (1) ensure safety, (2) facilitate instruction and learning, (3) increase and maintain efficiency in classroom and school operations, (4) encourage social harmony and unity, (5) protect individual's rights in their persons and property, and (6) enhance individual growth and development.

EXERCISE 3: Do you agree with these goals and purposes? If not, why not?

Can you add other goals and purposes?

In the next chapter, we will look at proactive discipline and classroom management strategies that can help us meet these goals and purposes.

Chapter Six

PROACTIVE MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

Student management can be divided into two broad categories: proactive and reactive. Proactive approaches include the planning you do before contact with students and the techniques you use when you are with students to prevent discipline problems from occurring. Reactive techniques are things you do to deal with problems and conflicts when they arise. The more time we spend on developing effective, proactive approaches, the less time we will spend on the reactive ones.

Each of these categories can be subdivided into strategies you use with groups and those you use with individuals. Whether you are teaching in an alternative school where all students are considered at risk or whether you have a regular classroom with a few of these students, you spend most of your school day teaching groups. It is important, therefore, to plan well for group management to prevent discipline problems and conflicts. Many individual discipline problems can be avoided if you use good group management techniques.

Of course, there is no substitute for a well-planned, relevant, varied instructional program to maintain order, sustain students' interest, and reduce discipline problems. J. E. Davis (quoted in Weber, Roff, Crawford, & Robinson, 1983) summarizes this view: "A well-planned curriculum implemented by a well-prepared teacher who presents a study topic so that it holds the interest of the students has traditionally been considered a deterrent to disruptive classroom behavior" (p. 30). In addition to your instructional program, however, you can do other things to increase your chances of having a productive and harmonious classroom regardless of the setting. In this chapter, I will present six proactive group approaches: Classroom organization, teacher sensitivity and group process behaviors, stress management through relaxation training, developing and enforcing

rules, resiliency training, and law-related education. I will end the chapter with a description of the effective classroom manager.

Classroom Organization

One of the most important proactive approaches to student management is effective classroom organization. Success in discipline is directly related to a teacher's ability to "arrange a classroom that is cheerful and orderly, organized so as to maximize productivity and minimize misbehavior, and well-designed with regard to the physical placement of students" (Weber et al., 1983, p. 32). Kuykendall (1992), Gordon (1974), and Wayson (1989) stress the relationship between the classroom environment and effective discipline. They recommend that we organize the physical environment to:

Make it comfortable and attractive. This will motivate students and instill in them a sense of pride. Display individual student work and positive slogans that foster values, keep students inspired, and facilitate persistence. Also, be aware of what research says about the effects of color and light on student behavior (Birren, 1961; Day, 1980). Students are more likely to be alert to what is going on around them in the presence of bright light and warm, luminous colors such as yellow, peach, and pink. This type of environment is best when you want students to participate actively and to become emotionally involved with the learning task. On the other hand, students are more likely to have greater concentration and be distracted less in the presence of lower brightness and softer, cooler colors such as gray, blue, green, and turquoise. This type of environment is more beneficial when you want students to concentrate on complex mental tasks (Birren, 1982; Reeves, 1992). These colors are also related to lower levels of aggressive and nonattentive behaviors (Wohlfarth & Sam, 1981).

Make it easier for students to learn. Experiment with a variety of flexible seating arrangements to meet different learning objectives. There is no best way to arrange a room. Design active and quiet areas

in the room by using dividers and partitions. Restrict noisy activities to specific areas. Install learning centers with audiovisual equipment and materials close at hand. Limit the number of students who can be in a given area at one time. Develop checklists to assure completion of tasks. Play classical music at a low volume if it helps students concentrate and work quietly.

Put materials and books where students can reach them or provide a small ladder for reaching high shelves. Label drawers, file cabinets, and doors. Post instructions for use of materials and equipment in conspicuous places. Develop a checkout procedure for books and materials. Teach students how to get materials and how to return them after use. Place much responsibility on students for securing materials, setting up equipment, and cleaning up work areas near the end of the class period.

Design traffic patterns to either restrict movement or to enhance movement based on the objective of a given lesson. Have students follow a "take-a-number" technique for time with you. Provide "in-baskets" and "out-baskets" for assignments. Have dry runs or rehearsals for the ways students are expected to move throughout the room. Post signs as reminders, cues, and guidelines about how students are expected to operate in a variety of classroom arrangements.

Enhance teacher mobility. Wayson (1989) contends that a teacher who moves around the room will have fewer problems than one who stays in one place. He suggests that you use arrangements that allow you to move easily around the room, bring you into close physical proximity to students, and promote eye contact between you and your students. You should arrange the room to minimize the distance between you and any student in the room and to minimize the number of physical barriers between you and any student in the room. You should avoid placing your desk in the front of the room between the students and you because it creates a barrier, increases the distance between you, and gives students the impression that only you are responsible for what happens in the class. You should also seat potentially disruptive students close to you and mix low-achieving students with high-achieving students.

EXERCISE 1: What barriers and constraints do you face in your classroom to organizing it according to these suggestions?

What are some ways you might overcome these barriers and constraints? Be sure to ask your students, other teachers, and your principal for help.

Teacher Sensitivity and Group Process Behavior

Since most of your teaching takes place in a group, your major task while working with the group is to establish and maintain an effective, productive classroom group. You will be able to accomplish this task better to the degree that you are sensitive to what goes on in class and promote certain group process behaviors. Many of these ideas were developed by Kounin (1970) and other researchers described by Weber et al. (1983).

Withitness. This is the ability to be observant and attentive to what is happening in the classroom at all times. You seem to "have eyes in the back of your head." By staying attuned to the mood and behaviors of students, you communicate to them that you know what is going on in the classroom, that you are very much aware of what students are doing or not doing. Not only will this show students that you are interested in all their behavior in class, but it will set high expectations for good behavior on their part.

Overlapping. This is your ability to attend to more than one issue at the same time. You are able to handle two situations simultaneously without becoming so immersed in one that you neglect the other. Overlapping skill requires planning as well as competent knowledge of your subject. This skill is called for when you are teaching a lesson and someone comes to your classroom unexpectedly, a student gets suddenly ill, or a student becomes unusually disruptive.

Maintaining group focus. This is your ability to keep all members of the classroom group actively involved, alert, and accountable for their performance. This skill requires that you know your students well so you can respond to their needs spontaneously and quickly. It requires that you plan your lessons well taking into consideration students' needs and interests. It also brings into play the processes of "withitness" and "overlapping."

Fostering reasonable, clearly-understood expectations. Most teachers underestimate the power of expectations for good classroom behavior. You will have fewer disruptions and student conflicts if you help students develop accurate, realistic, and clear understandings of their relationships to one another and to you, and if you set high expectations about how members of the classroom group are to behave. This includes a well-developed rules system, but it also requires that you serve as a model for students and provide them with examples of acceptable behavior.

Promoting productive group norms. It is important for you to develop and communicate your expectations for student behavior. You can also promote good classroom behavior if you help students develop shared expectations about how they and other members of the group should act to make the group productive. Students will not only monitor their own behavior against these norms, but will begin to encourage classmates to behave more appropriately in class (Wentzel, 1991).

Sharing leadership. The greatest untapped resource available to you in your class is your students. It is important that you develop the ability to disperse leadership functions so that students are encouraged to help the group achieve its goals and objectives. You can achieve this task more easily if you have worked with the class to develop group and individual goals and objectives for academic performance and social behavior. You can also reduce the number of activities for which you are

responsible by delegating leadership to students. This helps you have more time to teach, and it teaches students responsibility.

Establishing and maintaining group morale. We are frequently concerned about individual student motivation and the satisfaction a student might get from a personal accomplishment. It is also important that you display the ability to help students experience satisfaction from the total classroom situation and to be cooperative and enthusiastic. Such morale is positively related to group productivity. Cooperative teaching techniques and whole-class activities are ways you can reach this goal.

Fostering group cohesiveness. Many students at risk of dropping out of school and many who eventually drop out express feelings of alienation in school. That is, they do not feel a part of the school; they have no bond with school nor the people in it. It is important that you consciously and intentionally try to develop feelings of belongingness in each student. You can help them identify with their classroom group as a whole so they can work together with relatively little discord and dissension.

Developing cooperation. In the world of work, cooperation has become an important factor in productivity. The same idea can work in a classroom. You will want to encourage cooperation rather than competition in order to facilitate a classroom atmosphere that fosters learning and encourages students to help each other behave appropriately.

Employing effective movement management. I've already discussed how the arrangement of the classroom will increase your mobility and enhance your ability to maintain classroom control. The idea here has to do with your ability to move students smoothly from one activity to the next and to maintain momentum within an activity. This flow and pace of activities might be something as simple as having students put up their math books and take out their English books with a minimum of disruptions. On the other hand, it could involve the way you move students from one learning center to the other in the classroom. Again, you will be more successful to the degree that you have planned for transitions between lessons and movement of individuals and groups within the room.

EXERCISE 2: Make a video tape of yourself teaching a lesson and do a self-analysis of your teaching behaviors using the points described in this section. Keep a written record of your strengths and weaknesses. Make a second tape in two weeks and compare your findings.

Stress Management Through Relaxation Training

Students at risk probably live with more stress and create more stress for their classmates and for you than do other students. Much of this stress among these students arises from the threatening situations they face in their lives at home, in the community, and in school. High levels of stress can be debilitating to them, especially as they try to cope with the demands of social and academic expectations that are a basic part of school life. Stress can cause students to be inattentive, neglectful of their work, and easily provoked to disruptive and aggressive behavior. Therefore, any means that you can use to reduce their stress should help them be more successful in your classroom as well as reduce the number of discipline problems you must deal with.

Relaxation training is one promising approach for reducing student stress and improving their self-management skills by teaching them to relax when they feel fearful and anxious. Researchers (Matthews, 1986) have found that as little as 15 minutes of relaxation exercises daily during the school year can significantly reduce discipline infractions such as class cutting and fighting. In addition, relaxation techniques can help highly anxious students increase alertness and attention, enhance self-control, decrease disruptive behavior, promote positive self-concept, relieve test-taking stress, and improve achievement.

Training sessions conducted live by a trained professional are most effective. However, audio tape exercises can be effective and are convenient for use in classrooms. Techniques can consist of one or a combination of the following exercises: deep breathing, the quieting reflex, stretching,

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autogenics (self-messages to relax), visual imagery (guided or self-directed), meditation, self-hypnosis, and various types of feedback. Guided visual imagery seems to be a particularly effective method (Matthews, 1989).

EXERCISE 3: Have each of your students make a list of the five things in school or the classroom that create high levels of stress for them. Arrange them in small groups and have them discuss their lists and come up with a consolidated group list. Hold a class meeting to discuss these stress-creating situations and discuss ways to relieve them. Use the stress-reduction suggestions described above to help them deal with their stress.

In addition to your attention to student stress, you must also be concerned about yourself. Your stress can cause discipline problems because it interferes with your interactions with students and others (Wayson, 1989). You can use the techniques described above as well as the following, some of which are suggested by Curwin and Mendler (1988) and Wayson (1989):

1. ***Have a plan and take charge.*** I have frequently stressed the importance of planning in developing effective lessons and arranging the classroom environment. When you have a plan not only for how you will teach but also for how you will deal with discipline problems, you can greatly reduce your anxiety levels.

2. ***Confront your problems as they arise.*** Don't ignore inappropriate and disruptive behavior. Face it head on and try to resolve it in a positive way for the benefit of all involved. When problems accumulate, so does your stress.

3. ***Deal with real problems, not with symptoms.*** Often, you must look at your own needs and values to understand why certain student behaviors cause you so much grief. Remember what I said about psychological survival being an important motivating force in your life. When a student makes you angry, ask: What am I afraid of? In what way is this behavior threatening my psychological or biological well-being? Often, you will find that your fears are unfounded; other times you will see that the threat is

real. Once you can separate real from perceived threats you will be more effective in dealing with students' behavior and with your own stress.

4. ***Focus on the positive.*** Look for the good in students and in situations where conflicts arise. Consider problems as challenges and opportunities. Rather than think about the goal itself, think about improvement toward that goal. When working with students at risk, you must measure success in small increments.

5. ***Be your own best friend.*** Think of what a friend might say or do for you, and then do it for yourself. Reward yourself for achievements. Be honest with yourself about failures and resolve how you will do better next time.

6. ***Try to find humor in situations.*** I don't mean that you should take serious matters lightly. However, it is sometimes better to laugh at yourself and help students to laugh at themselves and with others than to see every situation from a serious side.

7. ***Organize a faculty support group.*** Enlist a few other faculty members to meet together regularly to discuss stressful situations and to help each other work through them. This should not be a gripe session or a time to talk about students. Rather, it should be a time of sharing, bonding, and providing mutual psychological support.

8. ***Don't take all the world's problems on your shoulders.*** You can't be responsible for what happens to everyone. You might want every situation to be positive and want everyone to be happy, but you can't make every situation positive and everyone happy. Do you ever let students get by with inappropriate behavior to avoid a confrontation? Do you do things for students that students should be doing for themselves? Do you try to solve other's problems so others won't have to suffer, then wind up suffering yourself? You must let students grow up and become responsible for their own behavior. You can assist them, but you can't do it for them.

9. ***Take care of your mind and body.*** You must eat properly, get enough sleep, and exercise regularly. You need your own private time for leisure and relaxation to "recharge your batteries." In your busy life, this time will not just happen; you must plan for it. Don't feel guilty for taking time for yourself. Think of it as capital reinvestment.

10. ***Believe in the importance of what you do.*** When you have a purpose, it gives your work significance and it energizes you to persist in the

face of difficulties. William Wayson (1989) sums it up very well: "The good that you do goes far beyond your comprehension and lives on in generations you will never live to see. If people's lives seem bad, think what they would be if you weren't working" (p. 8).

EXERCISE 4: Make a list of the five things in your classroom or school that create high levels of stress for you. If appropriate, discuss these with students, other teachers, or your principal. Apply the suggestions described here to help you deal with these situations.

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Establishing and Enforcing Rules

Defining Rules. You will be a more effective teacher if you establish reasonable, definable, clearly understood rules. It is important that you help students from the beginning of the year understand what they can and cannot do with regard to daily activities (Weber et al., 1983). A rule is a statement which says that if you do something in a certain situation there is likely to be a specific consequence. A rule includes at least four components: (1) **Who** the rule is for, (2) the **situation** or conditions in which the person is to behave, (3) the specific **behavior** involved, and (4) the **consequence** of behaving in the specified way. This graphic illustrates these components:

Who———Situation———Behavior———Consequence

A rule is an "If/Then" probability statement. That is, it tells us the likelihood that if a specified person behaves in a certain way in a particular situation then a specific consequence will follow. We develop rules as we reflect on and evaluate our past behavior. As we think about our experiences, we discover connections between our behavior and consequences given certain situations. We then develop statements about these connections and use these statements to guide our behavior. We can also share these statements with others as guides to their behavior.

We hope that remembering a rule will help students control their behavior or that our stating a rule will control their behavior. Rules sometimes work the way we want; unfortunately, they sometimes don't. For example, we often write or state rules in a shorthand fashion. Terms like DON'T RUN IN THE HALL, KEEP OFF THE GRASS, DON'T TALK IN CLASS, RAISE YOUR HAND IF YOU WANT TO TALK are all shorthand rules. Stated in this fashion, these terms are just clues to help students remember the more complete rules. If they don't know to whom the rule is directed, the conditions under which the rule applies, or the consequences to the rule, they might not follow it. A shorthand statement is acceptable as the final form of a rule. However, when you are developing rules and teaching them to students, make sure you have included all the important components.

The following is an example of two ways you might state a rule that students are to walk rather than run when they are in the halls.

You can state the rule positively like this (numbers correspond to the four components above and are for illustration only; you wouldn't write the rule like this when explaining it to students).

> (1) When you (2) are in the halls, (3) walk rather than run (4) so you won't have an accident or disturb other classes.

Suppose you wanted to put a more tangible consequence to this rule. You might say

> (1) When you (2) are in the halls, (3) walk rather than run and (4) you can have five extra minutes of recess (or we will end class ten minutes early so you can talk with your friends).

A shorthand statement of the first rule might be

> Walk when you are in the halls.

You might state the rule another way:

(1) If you (3) run (2) in the halls, (4) you might cause an accident or disturb other classes.

A more tangible way to state this rule is

(1) If you (3) run (2) in the halls, (4) you will have to stay in at recess.

A shorthand statement of this rule might be

Don't run in the halls.

EXERCISE 5: Think of three of the most important rules you have in your classroom. Write a statement of each rule using the four components described above. Then for each statement, write a shorthand rule you can use as a clue for students.

Rule Statement 1 _____

_____

Shorthand rule _____

_____

Rule Statement 2 _____

_____

Shorthand rule _____

_____

Rule Statement 3 _____

_____

Shorthand rule _____

_____

There are several other reasons why a rule might not control students' behavior: (1) They don't know or don't understand it; (2) it is vague or too general; (3) it keeps changing; (4) it is not enforced consistently; (5) the student has no personal experience with which to relate the rule; (6) the student discovers through personal experience that the rule is false—that is, the relationships among situations, behavior, and consequences do not hold in ways described by the rule; and (7) the rule violates a strong need or value—that is, the student does not accept the purpose of the rule.

We must also realize that simply knowing a rule does not mean that we will follow it. Rules don't cause behavior. If students know a rule, it may increase the probability that they will act in accordance with it, but it is no guarantee. Motivation of students will also have an impact on whether or not they obey a rule. Their motivation is usually based on the type of consequence that comes from following the rule or to students' perception about the probability that the consequence—either positive or negative—will accrue to their behavior. Many teachers think that rules must be stated negatively; for example, "Don't talk or you will have to stay in at recess." The same effect might be obtained by stating the rule, "Remain quiet and you can go to recess on time." Students at risk often are more likely to follow rules when you state them positively rather than negatively. You can understand the relationship between students' motivation and their following rules by referring to what we said about motivation and values in Chapter Four.

Rules are more likely to control behavior if you follow these suggestions for developing and enforcing them. Some of these suggestions were gleaned from the research of Chernow and Chernow (1981), Curwin and Mendler (1988; 1990), Mendler (1992), Wayson (1989), and Weber et al. (1983).

Developing Rules

1. Know your limits when developing and enforcing rules; don't make rules that conflict with federal, state, district, or school regulations and policies (see Exercise 6).

2. Don't make rules you are unable or unwilling to enforce.

3. Make sure you have control of consequences (see Chapter Four).

4. Make as few rules as possible for the efficient operation of the class.

5. Develop a system to monitor effectiveness of rules; if you determine that a rule is a bad one, eliminate it or change it as soon as possible.

6. For nonmandated rules, involve students and parents as much as possible.

EXERCISE 6: Use the following form to help you determine your limitations when developing rules in your classroom. For example, what is a rule dictated by the federal government that you and your students must follow and which is nonnegotiable? Do this for each level of authority and you will be able to determine those rules you can set independently and those in which students can be involved and which are negotiable.

Source of Authority	Rule	Negotiable? (Y/N)
Federal Gov't		
State Gov't		
School District		
School		
Teacher		
Students/Teacher		

Enforcing Rules

1. When a student does not follow a rule, ask three questions:
   - Does the student know what is expected of him or her?
   - If the student knows what is expected but still misbehaves, does he or she have the skills and abilities to do what is expected?
   - When the student knows the rules and has the competencies to perform in an expected fashion but still misbehaves, is he or she motivated to do what is expected; that is, does the student want to or need to obey the rule?
2. Make sure students know and understand the rules.
   - Give students written copies of the rules.
   - Give students opportunities to discuss the rules.
   - When a rule concerns movement of students or classroom procedures, walk students through the rules so they will have personal experience with them--use good modeling.
   - Early in the year or when you first develop rules, you might post signs, symbols, or clues in the room to help students remember them; however, you should remove these cues after you are certain students understand the rules.
3. Once students learn the rules, avoid reminding them about the rules.
   - Help students develop their own cues for remembering rules.
   - Let the consequences of behavior come into play when a student breaks a rule; this is the only way some will learn and remember the rule. If you remind or warn students, then the reminder or warning comes to control behavior rather than the rule.
   - Never threaten students by saying you will enforce the rule if they misbehave again. Don't give second chances; just enforce the rule.
4. Enforce rules consistently and fairly. Once a rule is established and students understand it, you should:
   - Enforce it every time it is violated; you have no right to allow someone to break the rule.
   - Avoid favoritism and injustice.
   - Ignore excuses and arguments.

- Don't blame the whole class for misbehavior of one or a few.
- Don't count misbehavior when computing grades.

5. Stay calm when enforcing rules.
   - Don't expect students to always abide by rules or to learn new rules right away.
   - Don't become excessively emotional.
   - Avoid becoming angry when a student breaks a rule.
   - Don't take rule violations personally.
   - Practice anxiety-reducing exercises when you are not in class.
   - Smile as you enforce a rule; tell the student you have no other choice and would not be honest if you didn't enforce the rule.
6. Maintain your dignity and that of the student when enforcing rules.
   - Act like an adult when enforcing rules: don't engage in juvenile behavior such as screaming, arguing, being sarcastic, and petty.
   - Don't "wipe students out" psychologically when enforcing rules; when you correct misbehavior, always show students that you believe they have the potential to behave appropriately.

EXERCISE 7: Respond to these suggestions. Were you surprised by any of them? Do you agree or disagree with these suggestions? What other tips might you add for enforcing rules? Record your responses below and discuss them with other teachers and/or your principal.

Rules and Punishment. Since punishment is often the consequence for breaking a rule, it is important to understand some research findings that will help you use punishment more effectively when it is necessary. Punishment is defined as the decrease in the future probability of a behavior as the result of a consequence. If the behavior does not decrease or stop as a result of following it with a consequence, then no punishment has taken place. If you send a student to the office time after time for the same offense, then going to the office is not punishing to the student. One kind of consequence is the application of a "noxious" or "aversive" event following a behavior; for example, when a student talks out in class, you give the student detention. A second kind of punishment, called "response cost," involves taking away something the individual already has; for example, keeping a student in at recess for disrupting class.

Ross Parke (1972) described the following six statements derived from research on punishment:

1. It is more effective the shorter the delay between the act and the onset of the consequence.
2. The more intense the consequence the greater the inhibiting effect on future displays of the behavior.
3. It is more effective when there is a close and affectionate relationship between the punisher and the one being punished.
4. It is more effective when accompanied by a set of reasons for not misbehaving.
5. When it is delayed, verbally describing the earlier misbehavior at the time that the punishment is administered increases its effectiveness;
6. Applying punishment every now and then for the same behavior is less effective than when it is delivered after each behavior.

Punishment may have several undesirable effects:

- The punishing agent may serve as a model for aggression.
- If it is in an inescapable context, the recipient may become passive and withdrawn (that is, develop learned helplessness) or retaliate aggressively.
- If it is frequent, it may cause the relationship between the recipient and the punisher to deteriorate.

- It does not teach appropriate behavior; it only tells the recipient what not to do.

EXERCISE 8: How do you feel about punishment as a way to discipline and manage students? Did this discussion of punishment change your viewpoint?

Resiliency Training

Many students at risk see themselves as alienated, isolated, and victimized. They have developed inappropriate behavior patterns and coping mechanisms that hinder their academic performance and interpersonal relations. Other students who fit the description for being at risk nonetheless are making it in school and in their communities. These "resilient" students have positive attitudes toward themselves and others. They have effective social skills such as being responsive, flexible, empathic, and caring. They can communicate well and exhibit a good sense of humor. They possess effective problem-solving skills that allow them to think abstractly and reflectively and to find alternative solutions to problems. Resilient children demonstrate a strong sense of

independence and believe that they have control over their lives. They hold high educational aspirations (Benard, 1991; McMillan & Reed, in press). Because they see school as important to their future success, they study hard, get along with their peers, participate in extracurricular activities, and stay out of trouble ("Resilient Children Defy Stereotypes," 1992).

A growing number of researchers and educators believe that children at risk become resilient because of certain "protective mechanisms" that help them overcome debilitating and traumatic circumstances in their families, communities, and schools and become successful and productive students and citizens. These protective mechanisms include caring and support, high expectations, and meaningful participation in groups (Benard, 1991).

Although the home and community exert a powerful influence on children, research has shown that you, the teacher, also have the power to eliminate threatening conditions, establish protective shields, and facilitate the development of personal characteristics that make children resilient. Here are some suggestions for you organized within the three categories described above. Some of these ideas are research findings taken from McMillan and Reed (in press) and Benard (1991).

Caring and support. Numerous research studies have found one key element in the lives of most resilient students: A strong emotional bond with at least one person (not necessarily the father or mother) who provided stable care and adequate attention. You can be a "significant person" in the lives of your students. Be a warm and caring positive role model. Become intensely involved with your students; show them attention and personal interest and teach them to be compassionate. Spend "quality time" with students; establish an atmosphere in your classroom where you and your students can delight in each other's company. Be "nice" to students; that is, be a teacher who is easy to get along with, one who is funny and fun to be with. Be somewhat strict, but not too strict, with class work and discipline. Be patient with students; explain things they don't understand. Listen to their problems, give them good advice, and don't repeat what they tell you in private.

High expectations. Your students will be more likely to achieve success when you hold high but attainable expectations for their academic and social behavior. Show them by your words and actions that you believe they are capable of fulfilling your expectations. Don't give up on students and don't let them give up on themselves. It won't hurt to "push" students to give their best efforts as long as you provide the encouragement and resources necessary for them to succeed.

Meaningful participation. One way to help students attain your high expectations is to provide opportunities for them to be meaningfully involved and to take responsible roles both in your classroom and in school activities. Authentic participation also allows students to fulfill the basic human need to bond with others and helps them avoid the pain of alienation that so many students at risk endure. Involve students actively in lessons. Provide opportunities for them to be involved in goal setting, problem solving, decision making, and planning. Give them real and important tasks to do in the classroom and treat them responsibly. Arrange many experiences where students can work with peers; use cooperative learning, peer tutoring, and peer mediation. Teach them how to help others and to seek help when they need it. Encourage and arrange for students to join school clubs, organizations, and sports teams. Establish a service-learning project to help them get involved in the community.

A sample curriculum. Vicki Phillips (1994) has developed a set of resiliency-training curriculum materials for use with both groups and individuals (see Resources). These materials are designed to help you empower students by developing in them the perception that they are in charge of their own destinies. You do this by teaching skills that allow students to own their choices and the consequences that follow, choose their behavior instead of reacting to others, and refuse to be victims of circumstances and the behavior of others.

The following are a few of Phillips' suggestions to help you involve students in many types of experiences to develop resiliency.

1. Encourage students to emphasize their strengths rather than dwell on their weaknesses. If you recognize students' strengths, you can get them started in the right direction. Some simple activities include

having students write autobiographies in which they describe their strengths, using feedback groups where students point out each other's strengths, and using a variety of vocational and personality questionnaires to give students a systematic way to analyze their preferences.

2. Help students understand that happiness is not dependent on what happens to them but a choice they make. You can teach students how to focus on the good things that happen to them as well as how to turn bad situations into opportunities for building character. Students can also keep a "Reasons Why I'm Happy List" and add to it each day.

3. Give students information and experiences so they can relate effectively and assertively, even to those who are difficult. You can teach students the basics of Transactional Analysis (Harris, 1969) and I-messages and active listening (Gordon, 1974). These ideas help them better understand themselves and others as well as improve the way they communicate and resolve conflicts.

4. Teach students that they are able to choose their own attitudes and behavior regardless of the situation or provocation. Help them understand the idea of "irrational ideas" (Ellis & Harper, 1975) and how to control their emotions through their own thought processes. Point out to students that they can't control other people's behavior, only their own reaction to it. You must be able to model this kind of behavior for students so they will not "push your button" and make you angry.

5. Help students develop the confidence that they can make things happen. This is often a matter of teaching them good decision-making skills. Teach them to ask the right questions about the problems, set goals, consider consequences, and choose effective behaviors to reach those goals. Try to get students to focus on what they are going to do to solve a problem rather than make excuses and play the victim.

Law-Related Education

You may know some students at risk who have a history of discipline problems in school or who have been involved in the juvenile justice system because of delinquent or criminal behavior in school or in the community.

Are you amazed at the amount of knowledge these students have about law enforcement and the justice system? They are quick to tell you about their rights as citizens. Unfortunately, most of their experiences concerning authority and the legal system have been negative. They might have some understanding about their rights, but they often have a distorted view about the relationship between their rights and the attendant responsibilities they have to respect the rights of others.

Law-related education (LRE) is an increasingly popular curriculum designed to teach students in grades K-12 about law, the legal system, and the fundamental principles and values on which our constitutional democracy is based. It is particularly effective with students at risk because of content, flexibility in instruction, and relevance to student needs. LRE not only helps students learn about their legal rights, but it also emphasizes their responsibilities as citizens. This program goes beyond merely developing knowledge of facts about the law; it has as a primary goal the development of positive attitudes and values that have immediate application both in school and in the community (Waldoff, 1994).

One of the beauties of LRE is the flexibility with which you can use it in your school. For example, LRE can be offered in your school as an elective course. If a course is not feasible, such topics as how laws are made, nature and causes of crime, consumer law, family law, housing law, and individual rights and liberties might be offered as part of a required course (such as history, civics, or government). A third approach is to expose students to LRE through a special event (for example, law day, court visits, or mock trial tournaments).

One of the most attractive features of LRE is the way students are actively involved through case studies, dilemmas, and simulations. Students read a case about a legal situation and then assume different roles—attorney, judge, jury member, defendant, plaintiff, witness—as they analyze, debate, and discuss the case. Students might be asked to play one role the first time the case is studied and a different role on another occasion for the same case. The teacher serves as a facilitator for students by clarifying issues, highlighting specific facts, and asking probing questions. Students also study local, state, and federal laws that apply to the specific situations they read about in the cases. They might

also venture into discussions of the moral and ethical implications related to the cases and to the laws that apply to them. These interactive approaches are both cognitive and affective in nature: They help students develop positive attitudes, critical thinking skills, and participation skills (Waldoff, 1994).

In addition to prepared written materials such as textbooks, case studies and questions, and scripts for mock trials, you can enhance your LRE instruction by taking field trips to courts and by having outside resource persons visit your school. These may include law enforcement officers, lawyers, judges, or other professionals and paraprofessionals who can provide additional real-life experiences for your students. (For more information on sources for LRE materials, see Resources.)

The Effective Classroom Manager

To conclude this chapter on proactive approaches, I want to present six keys to becoming an effective classroom manager gleaned from the research literature by Heather McCollum (1990). She contends that an effective, successful, skillful manager:

1. establishes the rules and procedures early in the year and is explicit in communicating them;
2. consistently monitors compliance with the rules;
3. has a detailed and consistent accountability system, keeps track of student assignments, and gives clear descriptions of the evaluation system;
4. is clear in communicating information, directions, and objectives to students;
5. is good at organizing instruction, does not waste time getting prepared, makes smooth transitions, keeps the momentum in lessons, and maximizes student engagement;
6. is perceptive about classroom contexts and events and uses this information to develop activities that keep the flow going with minimal interruptions.

In the next chapter, I will describe a variety of reactive management strategies that have proved to be helpful in working with students at risk.

Chapter Seven

Reactive Management Strategies

In spite of all your planning and positive approaches, students are likely to behave inappropriately, disruptively, and aggressively. When that happens, you must be prepared with a repertoire of approaches to quell the disruption, redirect the aggression, and teach the appropriate behavior. In this chapter I will describe classroom meetings and peer mediation as two promising approaches you can use to resolve conflicts and improve student behavior. Next I will describe contracting and self-regulation of behavior as ways to deal with some types of individual problems. I will then offer some hints on traditional ways to deal with the difficult and disruptive student. I will conclude the chapter with a brief discussion of methods that don't work in student management and discipline.

Classroom Meetings

Sometimes you will notice that the order and harmony you would like is just not happening in your classroom. Students do not get along with each other, they are not following the rules, or they complain about how other classmates are acting. One approach to dealing with these problems is to hold a classroom meeting where you involve students in trying to solve problems of mutual concern to all. A classroom meeting should give you and your students an opportunity to share thoughts and feelings, identify and clarify problems, propose and analyze a variety of solutions, and commit to a plan of action that has the potential to solve the particular problem under discussion (Weber et al., 1983). Effective classroom meetings should foster group norms for behavior and create a sense of responsibility in the students.

Wayson (1989), using ideas from William Glasser's (1965) *Schools Without Failure*, offered some suggestions about conducting a classroom meeting.

- Students must willingly participate; if students are coerced into taking part in a classroom meeting, nobody will benefit.
- The teacher serves as a nonjudgmental group discussion leader.
- All problems concerning the class or individual members are open for discussion.
- Every student has the right to speak.
- The teacher should not interrupt a student to correct bad grammar or slang.
- The teacher should encourage students to participate and express their feelings.
- The teacher ensures that the discussion always focuses on solving the problem rather than punishment or fault finding.
- The teacher is free to participate in the discussion and offer solutions like everyone else; however, the teacher's solutions do not take precedence over those of students.
- Students are permitted to make judgments about discipline and management issues discussed; however, the goal is to find possible solutions, not administer punishment. The class is not permitted to serve as "judge and jury" regarding student misconduct or other social problems in the class.
- The teacher and students should sit in a closed circle for the meetings.
- The meetings should be held on a regular basis and should be considered an important part of the curriculum (pp. 39-40).

Gordon (1974) proposed a six-step problem solving system that can be used in conjunction with the ideas presented by Wayson. Gordon calls this approach Method III (as opposed to Method I—being too authoritarian and Method II—being too permissive). It can be used with individuals or groups to solve a variety of classroom problems including those relating to discipline and management.

The six steps of Method III are:

1. Define the problem in terms of the needs of all involved, not in terms of solutions that each brings to the meeting.
2. Generate possible solutions. Solutions are not evaluated or justified. Brainstorming is a good approach. Get everyone's suggestions on the table no matter how far out they might be.
3. Evaluate the solutions. If anyone objects to a solution for any reason, it is eliminated from consideration. This is the step where documentation and analysis are important—those who propose solutions must now justify them before the group.
4. Make a decision. Solutions are determined by consensus, not by voting. Prospective solutions should be thoroughly discussed and analyzed to see if students and the teacher can live with them, at least on a trial basis. Make sure everyone is genuinely satisfied with the solution. Write down the solution and get everyone involved to sign it.
5. Determine how to implement the solution. Ask students what is needed to get started, look at the issue of standards of performance, and decide who will do what and when as well as who will monitor these factors.
6. Assess the success of the solution. It is important to check on the effectiveness of the solution and to make necessary changes when it appears that it is not working. Additional meetings are a good way to revise solutions.

As a teacher, you are an equal participant with students in classroom meetings. If you think you might not be able to live with the outcomes of this approach, you should use it with less important problems first before using it for more important ones. Once you become comfortable with classroom meetings, you can use them to involve students in developing nonmandated classroom rules.

In order to conduct effective classroom meetings, you must establish some ground rules for taking part in a discussion (for example, being recognized before speaking, taking turns, keeping emotions under control, presenting convincing arguments for solutions, respecting others' rights to their opinions, avoiding name calling and personal criticism). You will

also need to develop other interpersonal skills suggested by Gordon (1974) such as active listening and the use of I-messages.

EXERCISE 1: If you do not already use classroom meetings, how comfortable do you feel with the idea? Analyze your feelings and abilities with this approach by answering the following questions.

How must I change my attitude if I use this approach?_____

_____.

What skills must I develop if I use classroom meetings?_____

_____.

What training must I give my students before we start?_____

_____.

What support do I need from my principal?_____

_____.

Peer Mediation

Many conflicts arise in your class because of name-calling, gossip, prejudice, "dirty looks," and many other situations where students "rub each other the wrong way." Often you or the counselor can step in to help resolve these conflicts. However, many teachers and schools are having success with enlisting students to help other students solve these interpersonal problems (Johnson, Johnson, Dudley, & Burnett, 1992). Peer mediation uses student volunteers to help classmates resolve

conflicts. Some schools have experienced a significant decrease in suspensions and an increase in attendance and grades as a result of setting up a peer mediation program. This approach has been particularly successful with helping students at risk identify with the school and reducing feelings of alienation (Koch, 1988).

All students should be given an opportunity to volunteer to be a mediator. Students at risk and those with a history of discipline problems make some of the best mediators (Koch, 1988). However, not all students make good mediators, so it is necessary to screen them carefully and train them well. Before you let a student serve as a mediator, you must ensure that you have taught him or her how to (1) create a relaxed, trusting, non-threatening atmosphere where the students with a conflict can vent their disagreements, make accusations, and communicate directly with each other to reach a settlement; (2) listen sensitively, use neutral language, and offer options without becoming emotionally involved in the squabble; and (3) make no judgmental, punitive, or coercive statements nor impose any sanctions (Koch, 1988; Cahill, 1989; Johnson et al., 1992; Willis, 1993).

In a mediation session, the mediator's task is to help the two students answer three main questions: What happened? How do you feel about it? What would you like to see happen? Mendler (1992, p. 78) offers a 10-step process as an example of how a mediation session might proceed. The mediator introduces himself or herself and then asks that each student:

1. take a turn discussing what the other did that he resented, disliked, or made him feel angry;
2. repeat what was said to ensure understanding;
3. say what he likes about the other and what the other might like about him;
4. repeat what was said;
5. tell what he wants the other to do that will solve the problem;
6. repeat the other's demands;
7. say if he will do these desired things;

8. repeat what he is willing to do, as well as to listen to what the other is willing to do, and to reach an agreement;
9. shake hands, sign a statement of the agreement;
10. agree on a follow-up meeting to determine if the agreement is working.

Peer mediation is appropriate for problems such as fighting, harassment, spreading rumors about another, poor sportsmanship, conflicts over property ownership, character slurs, jealousy, space encroachment, and the like. It is not a substitute for discipline, and it does not replace your authority or that of the school administration. It would not be appropriate for cases such as weapons possession, drug use, vandalism, or extreme violence and threats of bodily harm. These situations should be handled through normal discipline policies and procedures.

Peer mediation advocates (Koch, 1988; Cahill, 1989; Johnson et al., 1992; Willis, 1993; Rogers, 1994) agree that with about 15-20 hours of training, you can teach students as young as fourth graders to be peer mediators. They can work singly or in pairs, and mediation is effective with students in all grades. Agreements usually endure because the "antagonists" have worked hard to arrive at a settlement and each has a vested interest in the outcome. As with any program, peer mediation will need supervision, constant monitoring to see if it is working, and continuous training and support for mediators (see Resources).

EXERCISE 2: Read additional information about peer mediation. Then discuss this approach with other teachers and your principal to determine how you might start a schoolwide plan.

Contracting

Contracting, sometimes called contingency contracting, helps you bring together the best elements of reinforcement theory and non-coercive student-teacher negotiations to resolve conflicts, reduce disruptive behavior, and improve student learning. A contract is a binding agreement between the student and teacher (and other parties in some cases) about expected behavior and consequences. It describes simply, clearly, and precisely what the student will do and what the teacher will do within the context of a mutual agreement (Gage & Berliner, 1988). A contract is basically an "If/Then" agreement. If the student will do A in a certain way at a certain time to a certain degree under certain conditions, or will not do B in certain situations, then the teacher will do X, Y, or Z.

One problem that you might have with using a contract is that participation is voluntary on the student's part; you can't force a student to enter into a contractual agreement. A contract is negotiable, and can be terminated by either party and renegotiated. How then can it be effective for solving conflicts? A contract will work only when you have control over reinforcers that the student will work for. If you are not in control of the contingencies that affect the student's behavior, then a contract is not going to work for you. You must be creative in discovering what those reinforcers are by getting to know the student well and by working with parents in setting up the contract. Often, parents must be willing to be a partner with you in applying consequences if contracting is to be successful.

Homme, Csanyi, Gonzales, and Rechs (1970) recommended several tips for developing effective contracts with students. In order to understand these tips and to be successful with contracting, you must have a good grasp of the terminology and principles of reinforcement theory (behavior modification).

1. When you first develop a contract with a student, require and reward small and easy steps toward the final objective you are trying to achieve. This is the concept of shaping behavior by successive approximations. Too often, teachers make requirements for a payoff too difficult. So no matter how strong the reinforcer or how often the teacher may be willing to give it, the student makes no progress because the expectations are too high. For example, the teacher develops a contract with a student who is an incessant talker in class. The teacher agrees to let the student out of class ten minutes early on Friday if the student will not talk without permission during the week. Unfortunately, one incidence of talking will cause the student to lose the entire reinforcing consequence. A better approach is to give the student two minutes of time on Friday for each day that the talking behavior is less than a certain level, say the frequency of the behavior the day before. The idea is to find an appropriate starting point where progress can be made and to gradually increase the expectations as the student gets better.

2. Early in the contract situation, you should provide the payoff as soon as possible after the behavior and give the payoff frequently in small amounts. Later, you can wait for longer periods before giving the payoff.

3. All payoffs to the student should be for accomplishment of a specific goal, not obedience to you as a person. You want the student to learn that good things happen because the student has achieved a goal to which both of you have agreed. This lets the student feel empowered and responsible, not docile and dependent.

4. You should give the payoff only ***after*** the student has accomplished the mutually-developed objectives. This is what is commonly called "Grandma's rule": First you work and then you play. This approach not only helps the student stay on track to achieving goals, but it also helps develop good work habits that will have long-term benefits.

5. The contract must be fair and reasonable. That is, the payoff should be commensurate with the behavior we expect from the student. To ask the student to behave appropriately for a month in order to receive five minutes free time to read a book of his or her choice is neither

reasonable nor fair, and probably would have very little effect on his or her behavior.

6. The terms of the contract must be clear so that the student knows exactly what is expected and what the payoff will be. Therefore, it is important that contracts be written in simple language and brief statements. It is helpful to have the student read the contract and explain it to you before it is put into effect.

7. The contract must be honest. That is, once you have agreed to its terms, you are bound to carry it out. It is important, then, that you know whether or not you can deliver the payoffs before you agree to the contract.

8. The contract must be positive. You can write contracts that state that something unpleasant will happen if the student fails to behave in a certain way. However, the student is more likely to improve behavior if there is a payoff for positive behavior than if there is punishment for negative behavior.

EXERCISE 3: Study this approach in more detail and try it with one or two of your students with whom you think this would be successful. Make sure you know what consequences these students find reinforcing. Also, it would be helpful to involve parents.

Curwin and Mendler (1988) reported that some teachers have had good success using contracting with an entire class, a process they call social contracting. While some of the same principles for individual contracting apply for an entire class, Curwin and Mendler describe additional features of the social contract:

1. A set of classroom principles to g .de the development of rules for behavior. These principles include the following: Be respectful, be courteous, be prepared, treat others as you wish to be treated, and try your best at all times.

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2. A set of rules which are behavioral expressions of these principles and which define what is and is not acceptable in the classroom. Specifically stated rules lead to predictability and an understanding of expectations. You can refer to the discussion on rules in the previous chapter for guidelines in establishing rules.

3. A range of consequences for each rule. Consequences should be logical, positive as much as possible, and those over which the teacher has control. Again, refer to the discussion of consequences in the section on rules in the previous chapter.

4. Student involvement in the development of the social contract. This can be done in several ways. Students can develop rules for the teacher (for example, how long the teacher should take in grading homework assignments); they can develop rules for each other (for example, what to do when you want to borrow pencil or paper from another student); and they can vote on negotiable rules (for example, how to line up to go to lunch or assembly). If you allow students to give input into rules, you must be willing to live by their decisions. Don't let them have a say in a rule if you don't feel comfortable enforcing it.

5. A test on the elements of the contract. This will prevent students from saying they did not know what was expected of them. Students can take the test as many times as necessary to pass, but they cannot partake in payoffs until they pass.

6. Input from parents and school administrators. It is always a good idea to test your plan with parents and the principal. This step can often help you avoid grief later if something goes wrong.

7. A plan to evaluate the effectiveness of the system. As with an individual contract plan, you need to monitor the social contract frequently and make changes when necessary. You can monitor student behavior to see if it is changing in the desired direction. You can also ask students to give you feedback about how things are working and what changes need to be made so the contract will work better. If you enter into a contracting process with an experimental attitude and know that you will need to make changes when things are not working, you will not feel the need to continue a flawed process simply to save face.

I should caution you about a problem that might arise when you use social contracting. Peer pressure is one factor that makes social contracting work. Sometimes, this pressure becomes overly negative because students who behave appropriately and follow the rules become angry with those who do not. This might cause conflicts and disturbances in your class that you had not expected. If this happens, you can address the problem by using class meetings and peer mediation to relieve tension and resolve these conflicts.

EXERCISE 4: Study this approach in more detail and try it with one or two of your classes on a limited basis until you feel comfortable, then expand it. As with individual contracting, be sure to involve parents and your principal.

Teaching Self-Regulation of Behavior

I stated earlier that individual behavior is designed to produce good outcomes for the individual in question. There is nothing sinister or evil about this; it's just the way humans are designed to act. I also stated that the particular behaviors that one develops are primarily a matter of experience; that is, we learn to act in certain ways that we think will bring us good outcomes. As we grow older, we gain greater and greater control over our behavior; that is, we can determine how we are going to act in given situations. Sometimes, the way we act is good for us and for others as well. However, sometimes we choose to act in ways that hurt others.

A common sense view of self-control is choosing to act in certain ways for self-enhancement but not at the expense of someone else. Actually, we also exercise self-control when we act in ways that may cause other people harm. The important point is that we learn to behave; therefore, we can learn to be antisocial or prosocial. When I talk about self-regulation of behavior, I am describing the process by which we engage in more prosocial

than antisocial behavior. We act in ways to accomplish the most for ourselves but in the most socially-acceptable and socially-productive manner. Since both good and bad behavior is learned, we can teach students ways to act so they can meet their own needs and yet gain personal satisfaction in doing good things for others. The key is to make sure individuals develop satisfaction by doing good things rather than bad things.

One way to help students develop prosocial behavior is to teach them a process of self-regulation of their own behavior (Gage & Berliner, 1988). This is the process of observing, judging, and applying consequences (either covertly or overtly) to our own behavior in order to reach a goal. If you want students to learn this process:

1. Teach students how to observe and monitor their own behavior. Help them become more sensitive to what they do, when they do it, who is involved, and what happens as a result of their behavior. Teach them to keep records either by charting their behavior or keeping a journal. At first, you might need to keep a record and check on their accuracy by having them compare their records with your own observations or those of another observer.

2. Teach them how to judge their behavior against standards they develop or against those they have learned from others. As you help students with this part of self-regulation, you will benefit from findings from social learning theory concerning self-regulation of behavior. Students who observe adults who set low criteria for their own behavior are likely to be highly self-indulgent and self-approving for comparatively low achievements—both academically and socially. By contrast, children who see adults set high criteria for their own behavior tend to do the same. Since students learn some of the standards for judging their own behavior from teachers and other adults, we can expect low standards of performance from children if we set low standards for ourselves. On the other hand, parents and teachers who set high standards can expect children to adopt high standards.

Students tend to adopt stringent performance requirements and to reward themselves sparingly when we set and consistently model high standards for ourselves. When we both practice and teach leniency,

children become satisfied with mediocre performance and reward themselves for such attainment. However, we want to avoid setting standards that are too high as to be unattainable and discouraging to students. The key, then, is to match our standards to the abilities and ages of our students and to adjust them upwards or downwards when necessary, but to always challenge students to strive for better and better behavior.

3. Teach students how to identify consequences and apply them to their own behavior. People who reward their own behavior achieve significantly higher levels of performance than those who perform the same activities under instruction but receive no reinforcement, who are rewarded noncontingently, or who monitor their own behavior and set goals for themselves but do not reward their attainment of goals. People who punish themselves, particularly for behavior that they do not want to engage in, or for behavior that will be punished by others, can also modify their behavior. Students can reward or punish themselves in two ways: Covertly by consciously talking to themselves and overtly by arranging for tangible events that are either pleasant or unpleasant.

Let students be involved in setting up consequences. Teach them terminology for covert rewards/punishment. Let them decide on and obtain tangibles or work with you on other types of consequences. Be sure that students understand that when they are choosing consequences, they must stay within the boundaries of higher-level rules and policies.

4. Step in only to serve as a consultant for helping students monitor their behavior, judge it, and apply consequences. Shift control to students as soon as possible.

EXERCISE 5: Identify a student who has behaved inappropriately and give him/her the form "Getting Control of My Behavior" which you will find in the Appendix. If the student is too young to read the questions or has difficulty reading them, you will want to assist. Ask the student to share answers with you, another student, or his/her parents.

Dealing With Difficult, Disruptive, and Violent Individuals

When the group and individual approaches mentioned above don't work for some students, you might find it helpful to use more conventional approaches. I have compiled the following suggestions from the research of Chernow and Chernow (1981) and Wayson (1989).

The student who constantly talks—

- Keep a chair in an isolated place that you can get to easily for students who can't stop talking.
- Ask the talker questions so he must pay attention; make the questions authentic and avoid sarcasm.
- Use the icy stare technique unless the student is one who enjoys your attention.
- Use nonverbal communication; stroll close to the student and move his chair slightly; do not interrupt the flow of the lesson.

The openly defiant student—

- If possible, ignore the first outburst; the student might drop this tactic if you do not become upset.
- If the behavior persists or if it simply cannot be ignored, isolate the student and give him a chance to cool down in a non-punitive space, possibly an empty seat near you.
- If possible, try not to interrupt the class lesson to discipline the child. At the first opportunity, talk with the child privately while the rest of the class is working.
- Insist firmly but calmly that the behavior must stop. Stress the fact that it is the behavior, not the student, that offends you.
- If the behavior stops, continue with the rest of the lesson as if nothing has happened.
- If the student persists, it might be necessary to isolate her in the principal's office until you finish the class.
- Later, attempt to determine the cause of the behavior and then help the child deal with the problem in a more acceptable manner.

The student who cheats—

- Make sure students are well-prepared for tests.
- Have students compete with themselves; do not grade on the curve where a student's grade is dependent upon what everyone else does.
- If you can prove that the student cheated without holding an inquisition, have a talk with the student and explain that he gets no credit for work when he cheats and cheating is stealing from himself. For the first offense, give the student a chance to make up the work on his own time.
- Make sure that the student understands that what she was doing constituted cheating.
- Avoid humiliating the student in front of the whole class; this may stop the cheating, but it may cause other problems.
- After the case is settled, consider it closed. Treat the student as you would any other.
- Announce all tests; avoid "pop" tests; give frequent tests to take the pressure off students.

The student who refuses to work—

- Make sure the work is not too hard for the student. If so, readjust objectives, give the student success with easier work, and gradually work up to that which is more difficult.
- Provide incentives for completed work, and praise the student for any work that is done.

The hyperactive student—

- Provide as much structure as possible. Make classroom rules and procedures consistent from day to day and avoid surprises.
- Minimize distractions, avoid seating the student in the middle or back of the room, and keep the student away from windows.
- Couple verbal messages with visual cues to reinforce the message. For example, if you tell the student to be quiet, put your finger over your lips.

- Set up a quiet corner in the room where the student can go during brief periods during the day.

The student who uses profanity or foul language—

- Indicate calmly that the language used is improper in your classroom.
- Don't insist on a public apology.
- Don't take obscenity as a personal affront but as an offense against the class and the school.
- Stop foul language as soon as it begins; use of this language can be as contagious as slang.

The student who is aggressive and violent—Everyone in our schools today is concerned about violence. There might be times when you will be faced with fighting, a student under the influence of drugs or alcohol, a student threatening you, or a student carrying a weapon. I assume that your school has a specific set of policies and practices you are to follow in these cases. If not, you should talk with your principal about what you should do in these situations.

You might want to follow some suggestions offered by Kadel and Follman (1993) to deal with students who fight or bring weapons to school. These tips are for situations that arise either in your classroom or at other places in school.

Fighting:

- If a fight breaks out, send a reliable student to the office to summon assistance.
- Speak loudly to let everyone know that the fighting should stop immediately.
- Start giving orders and get nonfighting students away from the commotion as quickly as possible.
- Call out the names of fighting students and let them know you have identified them.
- If the fight is serious or involves a weapon, get help from other teachers—don't try to be a hero.

- After separating students, try to avoid using further confrontational behavior yourself (e.g., don't point at students, make accusations, or corner them with their backs against the wall).
- Get students away from each other so they cannot make eye contact or make threats to each other.
- Give students time to cool down and to talk in a calm setting to gradually change the climate of the situation.
- Once administrators have taken control of the situation, find a quiet time and place so you can relax and calm down.
- Use the incident as a "teachable moment" with students who have been fighting and with other students to remind them of rules about fighting and alternatives to fighting.

Student with a weapon:

- Do not confront the student who has the weapon.
- Stay calm and try to keep students calm.
- If possible, notify school administrators or security personnel immediately.

EXERCISE 6: Make a list of other behaviors not discussed above that you have difficulty with in your classroom. Read about and/or ask other teachers for positive ways to deal with these problems. Keep a "Difficult Behavior Strategies" file. Write the type of behavior at the top of a note card and list successful approaches for dealing with that behavior on the card.

Ineffective and Inefficient Discipline Practices

It is important for you to know about a variety of management methods that have been shown to work with students at risk. It is also

important for you to know what doesn't work so well with these students. The following list of ineffective management and discipline practices was compiled from the research of Curwin (1992), Weber et al. (1983), and the Florida Department of Education (n.d.).

- ***Scolding and lecturing.*** Most students have already heard it all before. Telling students what they should or should not do in a condemning tone of voice will turn them off to changing their behavior.
- ***Sending students to the principal or assistant principal for minor offenses.*** This portrays you as weak and unable to handle the situation without help. It also increases the distance between you and students. You should bring in administrators only for serious cases.
- ***Using sarcasm.*** This attempt at discipline will cause students to lose dignity and be humiliated. It will lead to power struggles and, eventually, counterattacks. Using sarcasm might make you feel better, but when you do it with students at risk you are just adding fuel to the fire.
- ***Administering physical punishment.*** Research has shown that physical discipline is associated with increases in aggression, vandalism, and delinquency. It might possibly lead to depression and lowered self-esteem. Many states now forbid its use in schools.
- ***Using school work such as writing as punishment.*** This associates punishment with an important academic skill and makes students dislike writing.
- ***Using threats.*** If you have rational rules with realistic consequences, then it is unnecessary to issue a threat; just apply the consequences. Threats are often the substitute for a well-planned system of rules or the lack of courage on the part of the teacher to administer the consequences of the rules that exist. Students become sensitized to constant threats and often lose respect for the teacher.

- ***Using harsh reprimands.*** Positive corrective feedback about inappropriate behavior is necessary if students are to learn more appropriate behavior. However, a harsh reprimand is usually seen by students as very negative feedback. Research has shown that it is both ineffective and inefficient.

EXERCISE 7: Do you believe that the approaches described in this section are ineffective and inefficient? What is your basis for your belief?

For each of the behaviors described above, think of an opposite, positive approach you can use.

In the next chapter, I describe a number of factors necessary to develop a comprehensive, schoolwide discipline and management plan for students.

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Chapter Eight

Schoolwide Factors in Effective Student Management

So far I have been talking directly to you as an individual about a variety of positive management approaches for use primarily in the classroom. All of these strategies will work if you are the only one using them in your school. However, they will work much better when they are part of a comprehensive, schoolwide program of student management. After all, discipline is a schoolwide concern. Student management is too important to be left to chance and too great a burden to be shouldered by the individual teacher working alone in the classroom. Many behavior conflicts you face in your classroom are spillovers from outside that result from a poorly-designed schoolwide management plan or the absence of one altogether. We must consider discipline as part of the school's curriculum. We must view it within the context of the goals of positive and productive interpersonal relationships and of life in a democratic society. So if you think your school does not have a comprehensive student management and discipline plan, you can discuss this chapter with your administrator.

In this chapter, I will describe common characteristics of schools with effective discipline and student management programs; offer tips on how your school can develop policies that establish a positive yet orderly climate where everyone feels secure and learning can take place; list the basic elements of a comprehensive schoolwide plan; and detail a number of additional factors that your school should consider for effective discipline.

Common Characteristics of Schools With Effective Discipline

From the results of an intensive literature search and a survey of 500 schools, the Phi Delta Kappa Commission on Discipline discovered the

following common characteristics of schools with effective discipline and student management programs (Wayson et al., 1982):

- A belief that discipline is developmental and that discipline is accomplished by incorporating it as part of the academic program;
- A total school environment conducive to good discipline rather than adopting isolated practices to deal with disruptive behavior;
- A belief that school is a place where staff and students come to work and to experience the success of doing something well;
- A student-centered orientation;
- A focus on the causes of discipline problems rather than symptoms;
- An emphasis on positive behaviors and the use of preventive measures rather than punitive actions to improve discipline;
- A principal who plays a key leadership role;
- Congruency between the principal's leadership style and the discipline philosophy and practices of the staff;
- High expectations for students with a belief that students can succeed and a commitment to expend high amounts of energy to achieve that goal;
- Teachers who handle all or most of the routine discipline problems themselves;
- Staff development on discipline philosophy, policies, and procedures;
- Stronger-than-average ties with parents and community agencies;
- An openness to critical review and evaluation from a wide variety of school and community sources.

EXERCISE 1: How does your school rate on each of the above factors? Using a scale of 0-5, with 5 being Excellent and 0 being Nonexistent, give your school a score for each factor. For any factor you give a low score, write a statement about what you might do to bring about improvement.

Developing School Policies That Promote Positive Student Management

The following questions can guide your school staff in developing discipline and student management policies (Mendler, 1992, p. 118; Curwin, 1992, pp. 149-152):

- Will policies work long term as well as solve the short-term problems?
- Are policies "knee-jerk reactions" which deal with a symptom but never get to the cause of problems?
- Are policies developed through a deliberative process?
- Will policies teach students to be responsible?
- Is character development the ultimate goal of discipline?
- Do policies dignify or humiliate faculty and students?
- Do policies encourage discipline practices such as paddling, writing names on the board, threatening students, and using sarcasm?
- Are policies designed for the benefit of school staff at the expense of students?
- Do policies protect educators from complainers, critics, and others who have their own agendas for what happens in school rather than to improve education for students?
- Do policies ensure that all students, regardless of their cultural background, sex, and individual characteristics, are treated without prejudgment or condescending, limiting expectations?

EXERCISE 2: Evaluate the discipline and student management policies of your school and district in light of these questions. Discuss your evaluation with other teachers and your principal.

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Elements of a Comprehensive Schoolwide Plan

These policy questions can help your school in designing a schoolwide management and discipline plan that should include at least the following seven components:

1. Participation by teachers, administrators, students, parents, and community leaders in designing and monitoring the plan.

2. A statement of the purposes and goals of discipline and student management in your school. This statement should be related to the overall school philosophy as well as relevant district, state, and federal policies. This statement should make it clear that discipline is a basic part of the school curriculum and should contribute to successful learning by all students.

3. An enumeration of student and school staff behaviors that are necessary and acceptable in meeting these goals as well as those behaviors that are unnecessary and unacceptable.

4. A set of practices, strategies, and approaches that will enhance positive discipline and management. This will necessitate an evaluation of the usefulness of existing discipline policies and practices for achieving the goals of your school and new ones that must be adopted.

5. A communication system to inform all interested and involved parties of the goals, policies, and practices.

6. A feedback system to determine if and how well the plan is working. This component will involve decisions about who will give input into the feedback system, how input will be obtained, and how it will be reported.

7. A correction system for changing the program. This will involve decisions about how you can change ineffective and damaging practices and develop new ones as well as who will make changes and when they can be made.

EXERCISE 3: Does your school have a plan that includes these seven components? If not, which ones are missing? Discuss your findings with other teachers and your principal.

Additional Factors for Consideration

In order to develop a comprehensive, effective schoolwide discipline and student management program, your school can address several other areas that impact directly on student behavior. These include the instructional program, expectations for student behavior, the physical school environment, the psychological climate, counseling and guidance, extracurricular and social activities, helping and service-learning activities, close home/school connections, multicultural awareness, out-of-class supervision, alternatives to suspension, elimination of corporal punishment, aggression replacement training, dealing with violence, and the "comfort pair."

Instructional program. Your school can provide a challenging, relevant, supportive instructional program for all students. Research overwhelmingly confirms what most of us learned from experience: When students are learning, they are likely to be orderly (Weber et al., 1983). We must not make the common mistake of believing that order by itself will produce learning. Students can be orderly and not learn anything. So good discipline produces learning, not just order. Students come to school to learn. Curriculum and instructional goals must be worthwhile and attainable for students. If not, then students' energies

and efforts will be directed elsewhere, often in the form of inappropriate and disruptive behavior. We can see, therefore, that curriculum and instruction can actually be the causes of discipline problems. Trying to produce order within a weak instructional program is a losing proposition.

Active, authentic, real-life, hands-on, experiential, accelerated learning is often more effective for students at risk than traditional approaches such as listening to lectures, reading-the-chapter-and-answering-the-questions-at-the-end, and marking ditto sheets in seatwork (Brandt, 1992; Harmin, 1994). Wayson et al. (1982, pp. 51-52) offer some suggestions about how your school can improve its curriculum and instruction practices so as to decrease the probability that they will cause discipline problems:

- Develop curriculum that appeals to a wide range of student interests and meets specific academic deficiencies.
- Add courses and activities to enrich the curriculum.
- Stress both basic skills and higher academic goals.
- Provide tutoring for students having academic difficulty.
- Use a variety of grouping techniques to meet the needs of students and faculty.
- Provide training for faculty and staff on how to develop curriculum, improve instruction, and obtain school and community resources.
- Systematically evaluate academic programs and solve problems early.

We can't improve our instructional programs without addressing the issues of tracking and grouping and retention of students in grade. Researchers (Braddock, 1990; Gamaron, 1992) have found that tracking and ability grouping do not increase overall achievement in school. Although these practices have positive effects for achievement among Asian-American subgroups and some high achieving majority students, long-term trends show negative implications even for these students. Furthermore, tracking and ability grouping have serious negative effects on the achievement of African-American, Hispanic, and American Indian subgroups. A number of educators and researchers are advocating that

schools begin a process of "untracking" (Wheelock, 1992) and organize curriculum and instruction so as to improve learning for all students (O'Neil, 1992). Alternatives to rigid tracking and grouping by ability include cooperative learning, flexible grouping within classes, and multiclass grouping (Braddock, 1990) as well as a nongraded instructional program (Pavan, 1992).

Researchers have also shown that retaining students in grade can have strong negative effects on achievement, self-concept, attendance, and social adjustment (Smith & Shepard, 1987; Gampert & Opperman, 1988; Shepherd & Smith, 1989; Holmes, 1989; Morris, 1990; Meisels & Liaw, 1991). Retention has also been identified as one of the most reliable predictors of students dropping out of school (Hess, 1987; Grissom & Shepard, 1989). Some people worry that the only alternative to retention is social promotion. However, there are a number of alternatives to holding students back. Some simple approaches include setting up tutoring and mentoring programs; providing extra help to students after school, on weekends, and at night; using computers for initial and remedial instruction; and promoting potential retainees to the next grade and providing intense remediation for them. More long-term approaches include setting up a nongraded, continuous progress system; providing incentives to schools with low retention and high achievement levels; and replacing the Carnegie Unit in high school with a more competency-based system for graduation (Hamby, 1994).

Expectations. Your school can set high expectations and all school staff can serve as good role models. When the adults in school set low standards of performance for students, they can expect students to behave at the level of low standards. When they set high standards, they can expect students to behave at the level of high standards (Gage & Berliner, 1988). Many poor and disadvantaged students are at risk of school failure. Knapp, Turnbull, and Shields (1990) remind us: "Disadvantaged children are capable of much more than we typically require of them. If they are to fulfill their potential, we must adopt practices that reflect this higher expectation" (p. 4).

Physical school environment. Your school can provide physical facilities and grounds that are safe, attractive, and well-maintained.

The age of the facility is not the most important consideration. Students can be comfortable in and feel proud of their school regardless of the age of the building (Kuykendall, 1992). However, all school personnel must make certain that dangerous and hazardous conditions are eliminated. Roofs should keep out the rain, heating and cooling plants should work properly, lights should provide sufficient lumination, restrooms should be clean, toilets should flush, locker doors should lock, window glass should be intact, and gym and playground equipment should work properly. Walkways and driveways must be controlled sufficiently to avoid accidents. Grounds should be clean and, when possible, green areas (grass, trees, and plants) should be provided.

Your school can also provide for the physical safety of students and school staff. Every effort must be made to protect students and staff from violence. Your school should not tolerate criminal acts on the part of students. The administration can work with law enforcement agencies to develop policies and procedures for dealing with disruptions quickly and efficiently. Law enforcement officers and social service agents should be invited to school as speakers, consultants, and mentors for students. Your school cannot allow drug dealers or students who have been suspended or expelled to disrupt school or harm students or teachers.

Psychological climate. Your school can provide a psychologically safe school climate. Many discipline problems are caused by the way we operate schools and classrooms and how we treat students. Even when we don't cause the problems, many school policies and classroom practices exacerbate these problems and make keeping order much more difficult. Your school will have a more positive psychological atmosphere if administrators, teachers, and other school staff practice the principles of discipline, self-control, and character education they are trying to teach to students. Students are more likely to behave appropriately if your school designs student management policies and practices to make every student feel wanted and to encourage achievement, good behavior, and participation in school functions. Students who feel they belong and who identify with the school are not going to cause disruptions, engage in violence, cut school, and cause vandalism.

Counseling and guidance. Your school can have an intensive and extensive counseling and guidance program (Hamby, 1992b). Counseling is sometimes the glue that keeps students at risk connected to school. Therefore, counseling must occur when and where students need it. The type of counseling needed by students at risk goes well beyond simple course planning and routine testing. It includes help with personal problem resolution, self-concept and self-esteem development, social relations skill training, and, in high school, educational and career planning.

Just as with instructional approaches, you need a wide range of counseling arrangements for students at risk including (1) planned, regularly-scheduled group counseling; (2) planned and unplanned individual counseling; and (3) spontaneous, crisis intervention. Counseling with students at risk is labor-intensive; it is not a one-person operation. Unfortunately, financial and logistic constraints usually make it impossible for a school to employ enough trained professionals to provide all the counseling services needed by students at risk. Therefore, your school can adopt the "emergency room" concept rather than the "general practitioner" approach to counseling. Such a strategy makes it possible to complement your professional counselors with a support system of paraprofessionals, mentors, parents, students, human service agency representatives, classroom teachers, and other school staff. A trained counselor is needed to coordinate this approach. However, others may assume many of the roles and duties traditionally assigned to counselors which go undone for lack of time.

Some schools have had success with peer counseling (Flax, 1990). Trained volunteers work one-on-one with fellow students who are lonely, troubled, or need some extra academic help. Peer counselors don't give advice; rather, they listen, paraphrase, explore options, and refer peers to adult counselors. The rationale behind this approach is that students are more likely to talk to other students about their problems than they are to teachers or counselors. Peer counselors are not a substitute for adult counseling, but they can complement the work of adults. The key to peer counseling is to thoroughly train volunteers and provide constant supervision and follow-up. Peer counselors can also serve as tutors, lead group discussions on youth problems, and take part in new student

orientations. The basic differences between peer counselors and peer mediators are the purpose of the activity and the content of training.

Extracurricular and social activities. You can improve discipline in your school by involving all students in extracurricular activities and school-sponsored social events. We sometimes assume that students at risk who don't succeed very well in academics make up for it by joining clubs. Actually, one of the distinguishing factors of many students at risk is that they are noticeably absent from club meetings and other school social events. Kuykendall (1992) believes that because some students at risk don't feel comfortable in or don't qualify to join the regular clubs in school, we should organize clubs to which they can belong. She suggests the Comedy Club for class clowns; a Rappers Forum for poets and rappers; a "New You" Club for students whose strengths are in personal adornment, style, and cosmetology; and an Artists Alley for students who have special skills in art.

You can help students learn many of the personal and social skills they need for positive interpersonal relations and general prosocial behaviors by involving them in social activities with peers, teachers, mentors, and parents. Students can have fun, develop friendships, learn shared goals, and improve self-esteem in activities such as:

- Outdoor sports, dances, food fairs, and car washes;
- "Ropes courses," "trust walks," and other personal and social awareness activities;
- Dinners, awards banquets, and picnics where students get together with teachers, administrators, parents, mentors, and others from the community. This is especially effective as part of an incentive program for appropriate student behavior (Hamby, 1992b).

Helping and service-learning activities. Your school can give students opportunities to develop caring attitudes and prosocial behaviors by involving them in activities where they help others. These can be simple homeroom and school chores such as letting students do routine classroom duties, provide tutoring, and conduct clean-up and beautification projects. Students can serve as cross-age buddies, whereby older

students help younger students with such activities as craft projects and playground games. Older buddies also can make the younger students feel more comfortable at school (Nucci, 1989).

Service learning is a more involved experience where students are engaged in "significant, well-planned, and genuine service" in the community such as conducting recycling projects, highway clean-ups, and service at convalescent hospitals (Duckenfield and Swanson, 1992).

Service learning works best when it is integrated into the academic curriculum. The essential components of service learning are:

- Preparation, where students identify and analyze a problem, select and plan a project, and engage in training related to the tasks they must perform;
- Action, where students perform direct service to people, indirect service such as channeling resources to a problem (raising money), and civic service where students might raise awareness of a community problem or develop a petition to get elected officials to take some action;
- Reflection, where students have an opportunity to think critically about their service, read and write about it, and discuss it with other students and the teacher. This component makes service learning a legitimate academic activity by improving students' learning skills and enriching their knowledge and understanding of subject matter related to their service.

Duckenfield and Swanson (1992) believe that service learning promotes "personal, social and intellectual growth, as well as civic responsibility and career exploration" (p. 7). Since these are also goals of a comprehensive discipline plan, service learning can complement other classroom and school proactive approaches to student management.

Close home/school connections. Your school can develop close home/school connections. This does not mean that parents must always come to the school. There are a number of ways to get parents involved (Hamby, 1992a):

- Keep them informed of the goals and procedures of the discipline plan through regular newsletters mailed to the home.
- Involve them in special functions such as awards ceremonies, picnics, talent shows, and job fairs.
- Contact parents in person when feasible, by visit or phone, rather than by letter.
- Conduct monthly meetings where you present some aspect of the discipline program.
- Provide workshops to teach parents how to help their children with school work and how to teach them prosocial behavior.
- Hold meetings at places other than the school when it is more convenient for parents.
- Hold meetings and parent-teacher conferences at varying times during the day to accommodate parents with schedules that differ from that of the school.

One key is to communicate information about what students are doing that is positive as well as negative. Many parents hear from the school only when there is a problem with their child.

Multicultural awareness. Your school can enhance its chances of developing an effective discipline and student management plan by raising the awareness of students and staff to several multicultural issues. Although we can agree with Banks (1993) that multicultural education is not "an entitlement program and curriculum movement for African-Americans, Hispanics, the poor, women, and other victimized groups," we will be more successful to the degree that we consider the unique needs of these diverse groups.

Kuykendall (1992) believes that we should rethink the concept of an "orderly environment" in light of learning styles research that tells us that students from certain subcultures need more activity, movement, and sharing during some learning experiences. Therefore, "order" might be defined as that which fosters student motivation. She also cautions that we should avoid school policy and rules that punish students for cultural habits. Rather, we should try to convey to students that school success will not require a rejection of their home or family culture.

Curwin and Mendler (1988) believe that while it is not necessary for the teacher to learn to speak the language of every non-native child in the classroom, it is necessary for the teacher to understand something of the culture of each child. For example, some students use language and physical mannerisms to express their "coolness." If teachers understand this language and these mannerisms, they can arrange for them to be expressed in positive ways. Teachers can also help themselves by understanding that different cultures have different comfortable distances for proximity and eye contact.

Wayson (1989) believes that most poor students, regardless of race or geographical area, speak differently from children with a middle-class background. He suggests, therefore, that we respect a student's language, culture, and values while teaching an alternative language to be used in the common culture. Since students cannot reject the language of their culture without rejecting everyone and everything they love, an attack on a person's language is an attack on the person. He believes that anyone whose language is constantly corrected or ridiculed will respond with frustration and hostility which will lead to discipline problems.

Banks (1993) believes that multicultural education is much more complex than we have thought. He suggests that it "is not an ethnic- or gender-specific movement...." but rather one "designed to empower all students to become knowledgeable, caring, and active citizens in a deeply troubled and ethnically polarized nation and world" (p. 23). Within this framework, then, I would suggest that we follow Wayson's suggestion: "Effective teachers develop skills to discern the positive strengths of other cultures and to emphasize those strengths in the educational process" (1989, p. 38). I would only suggest that we change Wayson's phrase "other cultures" to "all cultures."

Out-of-class supervision. Your school can have an ongoing system of supervision and monitoring. We know that the key to any classroom management plan is the teacher, but who is responsible for students when they are not in the classroom? Although this is an issue that is often neglected when we talk about discipline and student management, it is a serious issue, and one your school should address if you want a comprehensive program in the school. Administrators often assume

that teachers will supervise students when they are not in class, and this may be the case in elementary schools where students are with one teacher for most of the day. In upper grades, where students may change classes half a dozen times a day and eat lunch unsupervised, addressing the issue of who is responsible is more difficult. Teachers often feel that administrators should monitor students when they are not in class. In reality, however, few schools have the personnel to adequately monitor all students at all times when they are out of the classroom. We can establish all the rules we want for how students should behave outside of class, but, without adequate supervision, we will probably have to trust students to follow the rules. One option is to devote school time to meetings with students and discuss this issue and encourage responsible behavior on their part. Then use available school staff to supervise trouble spots.

Alternatives to suspension. Your school can seek alternatives to out-of-school suspension for minor offenses. Minority students are suspended more often and for more minor offenses than are other students (Johnston, 1988). Many schools have found that after-school and Saturday programs are helpful, but in-school suspension, when used effectively, may be the best alternative to out-of-school suspension.

An effective in-school suspension (ISS) program requires the following as a minimum (Johnston, 1988; Florida Department of Education, n.d.):

- A rehabilitative focus aimed at identifying and correcting underlying problems through tutoring, structured lessons, and counseling;
- Input from faculty, staff, and parents in planning and implementing the program;
- Orientation of faculty and administrators to the program's philosophy, objectives, and strategies;
- ISS rules and procedures which are clearly defined and communicated to faculty and students;
- Full-time, qualified, well-trained, paid staff members with the desire and ability to work with students with behavior problems;

- A space of adequate size for study carrels, work areas, and materials;
- A systematic record-keeping system to help monitor student progress and to ensure the accurate evaluation of the program;
- The opportunity for students to complete regular class assignments for credit without academic penalty and to receive tutorial help;
- Follow-up for students through communication to parents and teachers;
- Extensive counseling suited to the student's academic and behavioral problems;
- Alternative discipline plans for chronic offenders and those who refuse to comply with ISS rules;
- A limit on the number of times a student can be referred to ISS in a semester or school year.

Unfortunately, in-school suspension often does not reduce out-of-school suspensions, but becomes merely a detention center for minor offenses and a holding pen for students that teachers don't want to deal with in their classes. In-school suspension is not appropriate for all offenses and should not be the first level of discipline for minor behavior problems. Rather, it should be part of the schoolwide plan along with other approaches and strategies. Furthermore, sometimes it becomes necessary to suspend or expel a student. When this happens, it is more effective if your school refers the case to a social agency for treatment and follow-up.

Elimination of corporal punishment. Your school can evaluate the use of corporal punishment, and, if it is not already forbidden by state law or district policy, determine if it should be eliminated as a discipline technique. Although many states have banned the use of corporal punishment in school, it is still used in many others. Opponents of corporal punishment argue that when adults physically punish students, they model aggressive behavior and make students more likely to use physical aggression to solve conflicts. Proponents contend that corporal

punishment is one of the last techniques left to them to keep order in school. If your school continues to use corporal punishment, I would offer four observations:

1. Administrators should ensure that all incidences of corporal punishment follow Supremé Court rulings and state and district policies governing its use.
2. Accurate records should be kept to see what effect corporal punishment is having on students on whom it is used. Reinforcement theory tells us that a consequence is defined by the effect it has on future occurrences of a behavior. If you find that the same students are being paddled over and over for the same offense, you can be certain that paddling is not punishment because it is not affecting student behavior.
3. Records should also be kept to make sure this approach is not being used excessively on minorities and poor children.
4. We would probably be wise to heed the warning of Weber et al. (1983) when they tell us: "Research findings are clear in suggesting that corporal punishment is a managerial strategy that has far more disadvantages than advantages" (pp. 34-35).

Aggression replacement training. Your school can reduce the amount of aggressive behavior directed toward teachers and students. Acts of aggression toward individuals and property in school have increased at an alarming rate in the past 20 years, especially in the elementary school. You and other teachers in your school may be suffering from what Goldstein calls the "'battered teacher syndrome': a combination of stress reactions including anxiety, depression, disturbed sleep, headaches, elevated blood pressure, and eating disorders" (1992, p. 5). Goldstein (1988) believes that aggression is learned. Aggressive students have a history of experiences with aggression; they have been abused and have been reinforced for their own aggressive behavior. They also show serious deficiencies in prosocial skills of interpersonal relations, planning, and aggression management.

Aggression Replacement Training (ART) is designed to help students learn the skills necessary to control their anger and aggression and use

alternative behaviors that will lead to more positive outcomes, both in terms of meeting the students' needs and avoiding damage to others (Goldstein, Glick, Reiner, Zimmerman, Coultry, & Gold, 1986). ART is usually conducted with groups of six to eight students who have histories of aggression and who have similar deficiencies in desired prosocial competencies. ART has three basic components, each with a specific set of curriculum objectives and activities.

The first component is Structured Learning Training which teaches students positive behaviors as alternatives to aggression. Each skill is taught through a four-step process: (1) modeling, where an expert demonstrates the desired behaviors; (2) role playing, where the trainer guides students through rehearsal of the desired behaviors; (3) performance feedback, where the trainer provides praise, reinstruction, and related feedback on how well students' performance matched the model's portrayal of the behavior; and (4) transfer training, where the trainer encourages students to engage in a series of activities to increase the chances that they will use the behaviors in other settings at school, home, and the community. Transfer is extremely important if we want students to apply what they learn in training settings. Goldstein et al. (1986) found that most students could learn the skills but did not always use them once they were confronted with real-life situations. They often let their emotions override their knowledge about what they should do in their relationships with others.

The second component, Anger Control Training, was designed to enhance transfer by helping students learn what not to do in anger-instigating situations so they would be more likely to engage in more positive behavior. This component helps students recognize the "triggers" which cause them to get angry and provides them with a variety of skills on how to stay calm (such as deep breathing, backward counting, and pleasant imagery). The trainer takes students through the same four steps as those for learning prosocial behaviors.

The third step in ART is Moral Education. The trainer uses Kohlberg's moral dilemmas in a variety of group arrangements to challenge the moral thinking of students. Goldstein et al. (1986) believe that this approach

gives students a framework within which to view their development of prosocial behaviors and avoidance of anti-social ones.

Goldstein (1988) contends that this approach works better when all school faculty and staff understand its purpose and components so they can encourage and reinforce students in real-life situations outside the training sessions. This requires some in-service training so staff can become familiar with the program and ways to cooperate with the trainer to enhance student learning and application skills.

Developing a plan to deal with violence in school. Every school should have a well-developed plan for dealing with student violence and other incidents that might threaten the safety of students and staff (Kadel & Follman, 1993). This plan should be developed by a Crisis Management Team made up of teachers, administrators, students, counselors, bus drivers, security personnel as well as parents, school district office personnel, law enforcement officers, and health and human services representatives. The Crisis Management Team should establish specific procedures for all personnel about what to do in a situation involving violence or the threat of violence including:

- how students, teachers, administrators, law enforcement officials, parents, the media, and other interested parties are to communicate with each other in the event of a crisis;
- ways students, teachers, administrators, and other school staff are to respond to acts of violence;
- ways to aid victims in recovering from acts of violence;
- how to report violent incidents;
- ways to enforce a code of conduct, including what to do with students who commit serious acts of violence and those who engage in less serious acts;
- ways to prevent school violence by creating a safe school environment, teaching nonviolence and alternatives to violence, involving and educating parents and the community, and collaborating with other professionals.

It is extremely important that everyone in the school know what to do in case of a violent incident. Therefore, early in the school year, meetings should be held to inform students and school staff about policies and procedures that have been developed. Also, every means possible should be used to inform parents and seek their cooperation in dealing with violence in the school. Principals should enlist law enforcement officials and other service agency personnel to meet with and instruct faculty and staff in ways to deal with students who fight or brandish weapons in school.

The comfort pair. Your school can develop a discipline and student management plan that is more positive than negative. All students, but especially those at risk, tend to respond to warm, personal treatment by teachers and other adults much more readily than they do to punishment or negative reinforcement. Life is not all positive, however, and it is foolish to think that there are never negative consequences to our behavior--punishment is sometimes necessary. When we are setting up rule systems and consequences, however, we should remember a concept called the "comfort pair." That is, when we must punish a behavior, we should look for an incompatible, positive behavior to model or to suggest and reinforce when it occurs. For example, if a school is going to have a system of demerits, it should also include merits with which students can redeem demerits or use to obtain other reinforcers the school has established. The key is to balance the positive and negative approaches that work and to eliminate altogether those approaches that are destructive to students' psychological well-being and which don't work anyway.

EXERCISE 4: Do you agree that each of these schoolwide factors is an important consideration for developing a comprehensive student discipline and management program? If not, why not?

Are there other schoolwide factors that I did not include that you think should be considered? What are they?

Chapter Nine

A Final Word

I hope you have enjoyed our talk as much as I. I've tried to talk straight with you about discipline with students at risk. Before we part, I want to review several important points.

1. You can make a difference in the lives of your students by the approaches you take to discipline and student management. You are the adult in the classroom, and you have both the responsibility and the opportunity to help your students develop the self-control, self-confidence, and self-reliance necessary for them to become productive citizens and happy individuals.

2. To be a good disciplinarian and manager of students, you must examine your beliefs, values, and behaviors and make sure they are consistent with research. If you want to be effective with the diverse population of students in school today, not only must you hold certain beliefs and values about young people and their education; you must manifest these beliefs and values in the ways you interact with and treat them.

3. You will be a more effective teacher and classroom manager if you understand what motivates students and incorporate that understanding into your instruction and interpersonal relations with students. Humans are always motivated to adapt to life in order to survive physically and psychologically by placing value on the consequences of their behavior. If you know what students perceive as enhancing or threatening, you are in a better position to help them develop self-control and competence to deal with life.

4. A disciplined person will possess at least six characteristics: Competence, confidence, commitment, cooperation, control, and character. The development of these characteristics can serve as goals for your discipline and classroom management plan. In order to develop these

characteristics, you will need rules and guidelines for the following specific purposes: (1) ensure safety, (2) facilitate instruction and learning, (3) increase and maintain efficiency in classroom and school operations, (4) encourage social harmony and unity, (5) protect individual's rights in their person and property, and (6) enhance individual growth and development. Character education can serve as the framework within which to view all aspects of discipline and student management. The ultimate outcome of all discipline is personal character. Character is more than the simple distinguishing features or behaviors of a person. It includes moral and ethical strength, integrity, and fortitude. Character represents the best a person can be, both as an individual and as a member of society.

5. As a classroom teacher, you work mostly with groups of students and spend most of your time establishing and maintaining an environment in which groups can work in an orderly, effective, and efficient manner. You also must deal with those students whose behavior interferes with the group or their own learning as individuals. How well you keep the group progressing toward its goals while meeting the needs of individuals is the ultimate mark of your success in discipline and classroom management.

6. You can greatly increase your chances of success if you are proactive in discipline. Planning, variety, and flexibility are the keys to being proactive. Anticipate problems ahead of time and plan in such a way as to avoid or minimize them, develop a wide array of techniques and approaches, and be willing to change when an approach is not working. You can be proactive in the way you organize your classroom, develop and enforce rules, exhibit sensitivity to group processes and behaviors, employ stress management with your students and for yourself, and provide your students with opportunities to develop resiliency.

7. Regardless of how well you plan, problems and conflicts will arise and you must be capable of reacting to them in a positive way. Classroom meetings, peer mediation, contracting, and self-regulation of behavior are promising approaches to resolving conflicts and dealing with some types of individual problems. Some traditional ways for dealing with the difficult and disruptive student are effective. However, methods such as

scolding and lecturing, sending students to the office for minor offenses, using sarcasm, administering physical punishment, using school work as punishment, using threats, and using harsh reprimands have been shown to be ineffective and inefficient.

8. You can have success if you are the only teacher in your school using the strategies described in this book. However, because discipline is a schoolwide concern, you will be more successful if these approaches are part of a schoolwide plan. Important considerations for an effective schoolwide student discipline and management plan might include the instructional program, school expectations for student behavior, the physical environment, the psychological climate, counseling and guidance services, extracurricular activities, service-learning and helping activities, home/school cooperation and collaboration, multicultural awareness, alternatives to suspension, elimination of corporal punishment, and aggression replacement training.

One final word before we say good-bye. One of my motives for writing this book is my awareness of how difficult it is to be a public school teacher today. I have the utmost respect for teachers, and I congratulate you for choosing this profession. To paraphrase a quote by Bertrand Russell, "We can't be good teachers unless we have feelings of warm affection toward our pupils and a genuine desire to impart to them what we ourselves believe to be of value" (Dale, 1984, p. 83). In our relationship, I have, to some extent, been a teacher and you a pupil. Rest assured that I have approached our dialogue with feelings of warm affection towards you and have, with a genuine desire, tried to impart to you something I consider of great value. However, I have also been a little self-serving in writing this book. I agree with Samuel Smiles who said, "It is one of the most beautiful compensations of this life, that no one can sincerely help another without helping himself" (Dale, 1984, p. 4). If anything I've said helps you achieve your goals of being a better teacher, then our dialogue has indeed been worthwhile—for both of us.

APPENDIX

GETTING CONTROL OF MY BEHAVIOR

Directions: Use this set of questions to analyze your behavior to help you develop self-regulated behavior. You can complete the questions alone, in cooperation with your teacher, your parents, a counselor, a mentor, or another student. It can also be the basis for discussion between you and any of these people.

What did I do?

What were the circumstances? Where? Who was involved?

Why did I do what I did? What did I think the payoff to me would be?

What happened when I did what I did?

Was the outcome what I expected?

Was the outcome positive or negative for me? In what way?

Was the outcome positive or negative for others? In what way?

If the payoff was not positive for both me and others, what can I do in future situations to make it positive?

If the outcome was negative for me or others, what can I do in the future to avoid that outcome and produce a more positive outcome?

Can you write some rules to help guide your future actions?

Resources

Aggression & Prosocial Behavior

Innovative Training Materials
By Arnold P. Goldstein & Colleagues
Research Press
Dept. 171
P. O. Box 9177
Champaign, IL 61826
(217) 352-3273

Character Education

Character Education Institute
8918 Tesoro Drive
San Antonio, TX 78217
(800) 284-0499

Character Education Partnership
1250 N. Pitt Street
Alexandria, VA 22314
(703) 549-9110, ext. 750

Ethics Resource Center
1120 G Street, N. W., Suite 200
Washington, DC 20005
(202) 434-8465

Jefferson Center for Character Education
202 S. Lake Avenue, Suite 240
Pasadena, CA 91101
(818) 792-8130

Josephson Institute of Ethics
310 Washington Blvd, Suite 104
Marina Del Rey, CA 90292
(310) 306-1868

Identification

The Dropout Prediction Scale
Center on Education and Training for Employment
The Ohio State University
1900 Kenny Road
Columbus, OH 43210-1090
(800) 848-4815

Intervention Strategies

The At-Risk Student in Our Schools
By S. B. McCarney
Hawthorne Educational Services
P. O. Box 7570
Columbia, MO 65205
(314) 874-1710

Cooperative Discipline: How to Manage Your Classroom and Promote Self-Esteem
By Linda Albert, Will Roy, and Andy LePage
American Guidance Service
4201 Woodland Road
Circle Pines, MN 55014-1796
(800) 328-2560

Positive Discipline in the Classroom: Featuring Classroom Meetings
By Jane Nelson, Lynn Lott, and Nan Miller
Sunrise, Inc.
P. O. Box P
Provo, UT 84603
(800) 456-7770

Law-Related Education

Street law: A Course in Practical Law, Fourth Edition
By L. P. Arbetman, E. L. O'Brien, and E. T. McMahon
West Publishing Company
St. Paul, MN

Constitutional Rights Foundation
601 South Kingsley Drive
Los Angeles, CA 90005
(213) 487-5590

National Institute for Citizen Education in the Law
711 G Street, S.E.
Washington, DC 20003
(202) 546-6644

Peer Mediation

Educators for Social Responsibility
School Conflict Resolution Programs
23 Garden St.
Cambridge, MA 02138
(617) 492-1764

National Association of Mediation in Education
205 Hampshire House
Box 33635
Amherst, MA 01003-363
(413) 545-2462

International Center for Cooperation and Conflict Resolution
Box 53
Teachers College
Columbia University
New York, NY 10027
(212) 678-3402

Resiliency Training Curriculum

Personal Development
P. O. Box 203
Carmel Valley, CA 93924
Contact: Vicki Phillips
(408) 899-7026

Service Learning

National Center for Service Learning in Early Adolescence
25 West 43rd Street, Room 620
New York, NY 10036-8099
(212) 642-2947

National Dropout Prevention Center
Clemson University
205 Martin Street, Box 345111
Clemson, SC 29634-5111
(803) 656-2599

National Service-Learning Cooperative
R-290 Vocational and Technical Education Building
1954 Buford Avenue
University of Minnesota
St. Paul, MN 55108
(800) 808-SERVE

National Youth Leadership Council
1910 West County Road B
St. Paul, MN 55113
(612) 631-3672

Youth Service America
1101 15th St. NW
Suite 200
Washington, DC 20004
(202) 296-2992

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STRAIGHT TALK ABOUT DISCIPLINE

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